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RES ROMANAE

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RES ROMANAE

BEING

BRIEF AIDS TO THE HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, LITERATURE,
AND ANTIQUITIES OF ANCIENT ROME, FOR
LESS ADVANCED STUDENTS

BY

EDWARD P. COLERIDGE, M.A.

TRANSLATOR OF EURIPIDES AND SOPHOCLES; ETC.



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LIST OF USEFUL BOOKS.

The following are among the most useful and easily obtainable handbooks and works of reference for such subjects as are dealt with in this little compilation, which is an attempt to bring together in a short and convenient form for examination purposes some of the more important facts contained in these and similar works.

An asterisk is prefixed to those specially recommended for their conciseness.

*Horton's History of the Romans (Rivington). *Outlines of Roman History by Pelham (Rivington). ROMAN HISTORY *Matheson's Skeleton Outline of Roman History (Rivington). Smith's Smaller Classical Dictionary (Murray). BIOGRAPHY *Tozer's Primer of Classical Geography (Macand millan). Butler's Public Schools' Atlas of Ancient GEOGRAPHY Geography (Longman). *Wilkins' Primer of Roman Antiquities (Macmillan). *Gow's Handbook to School Classics (Mac-ANTIQUITIES millan). and Ramsay's Manual of Roman Antiquities ARCHÆOLOGY (Griffin). Smith's Smaller Dictionary of Antiquities (Murray). *Wilkins' Primer of Roman Literature (Mac-LITERATURE Cruttwell's History of Roman Literature (Griffin).



RES ROMANAE.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

B.C.

753. Commonly accepted date for foundation of Rome.

753-509. Rome under kings.—(1) During this period Rome establishes her power firmly in Latium, and, after the destruction of Alba, becomes the head of the Latin League; in alliance with the Latins, she founds "Latin colonies."

(2) Wars with the Sabines, ending in a league between them and Rome; with the Latins, leading to a league with them and their settlement on the Aventine; with Veii; with the Volscians, and with Gabii. (3) Etruscan immigration.

(4) Rise of the plebs, i.e. strangers, who had flocked to Rome, and who, as they did not belong to the old families, had no share in the government; also freed slaves. (5) Constitution of Servius Tullius. First step towards helping the unprivileged plebs by a new organisation of the army, based on landed property instead of citizen birth. (6) Abolition of monarchy owing to the tyranny of the Tarquinii.

500. Expulsion of King, whose place is filled by two consuls.

508. The Etruscans, in alliance with Carthage, command the Tyrrhenian Sea, and take Rome; humiliating terms.

501. First Dictator appointed.

496. Roman victory over the thirty Latin cities at Lake Regillus.

494. First secession of the Plebeians, to the "Mons sacer." Appointment of two tribuni plebis.

493. League of Rome with the Latins.

489-431. Wars with Æquians and Volscians; Rome often hard pressed; the Hernicans in alliance with Rome; war with

Veii; destruction of the Fabian clan at the Cremera by the Veientines; foundation of Latin colonies, e.g. Antium, Ardea; great victory over Volscians and Æquians at Mount Algidus; power of Etruscans declining; Sabines moving south.

- 471. Lex Publilia, carried by Volero Publilius, a tribune, that the tribunes be elected at the Comitia Tributa.
- 451, 450. The Decemvirate. Appius Claudius. The XII. Tables, a codification and publishing of the law.
- 449. Second secession of the plebs, to the Aventine, resulting in the Valerio-Horatian laws; resolutions of the plebs in their tribeassembly (plebiscita) have the force of law.
- 445. Lex Canulcia legalises marriage between patricians and plebeians.

 Military tribunes with consular power instead of consuls.
- 443. Censors appointed.
- 396. Capture of Veii by Camillus, after ten years' siege, during which payment of Roman soldiers was first introduced. Etruscans no longer formidable.
- 390. Romans defeated by the Gauls at the Allia; Rome, except the Capitol, captured and burnt; Gauls bribed to depart; Camillus dictator.
- 367. LICINIAN LAWS PASSED, after a ten years' struggle by the tribunes, C. Licinius Stolo and L. Sextius. Consulship restored. One consul must be a plebeian.
- 348. Treaty of Rome with Carthage.
- 343-341. 1st Samnite war. Roman victory at Mt. Gaurus.
- 340-338. Great Latin war, owing to Latin demand that one consul should be Latin. Roman victory at Veseris; complete subjugation of the Latins, and dissolution of the Latin League; Roman policy of "divide et impera" rigidly carried out in the settlement of Latium.
- 339. Leges Publiliæ of Q. Publilius Philo, increasing and confirming the powers of the plebs.
- 327-304. 2nd Samnite war. Early Roman successes more than counterbalanced by the disaster at the Caudine Forks, where Gaius Pontius, the Samnite general, entraps both consuls and their armies; the Roman Senate repudiates the peace then extorted, and renews the war; Luceria is captured by the Romans; war continued with varying success; Etruscans join Samnites; Roman victories at Lake Vadimo and Perusia;

Rome detaches or conquers the Samnite allies one by one; Bovianum, the Samnite capital, is captured; peace and alliance with the Samnites and Sabellian tribes in B.C. 304.

- 298-290. 3rd Samnite war. Samnites invade Lucania; decisive defeats of Samnites, Etruscans, Umbrians, and Gauls, first at Clusium and then at Sentinum; Bovianum sacked; C. Pontius taken and executed by Romans; Latin colony planted at Venusia; peace concluded, and league with Rome renewed.
- 287. 3rd and last secession of the plebs, to the Janiculum. Lex Hortensia finally establishes the legislative power of the plebs in its own assembly.
- 280-275. War with Pyrrhus king of Epirus, and with S. Italy. Pyrrhus defeats the Romans near Heraclea; great part of S Italy at once joins him; his terms rejected at Rome by Appius Claudius Cæcus; Latin towns remain loyal; second Roman defeat at Asculum; Pyrrhus crosses to Sicily at request of Syracuse against Carthage; Rome and Carthage conclude offensive and defensive alliance against the common foe; after rapid successes in Sicily for two years, Pyrrhus returns to Italy, but, being irretrievably defeated at Beneventum by M'. Curius Dentatus, finally quits Italy.
- 273. Egypt forms an alliance with Rome.
- 272. Tarentum and all southern Italy submits to Rome.
- 266. Conquest of Italy now completed. Numerous colonies planted.
- 264-241. Ist Punic war. Quarrel about Messana; Hiero makes alliance with Rome; consuls capture Agrigentum; Punic fleet ravages Italian coasts; Rome builds a fleet; Roman naval victory at Mylæ, C. Duilius in command; great victory of Regulus at Ecnomus; he lands in Africa, achieves many successes till defeated by Xanthippus; another Roman victory off the Hermæan Cape, but Roman fleet mostly lost in a storm on return voyage; capture of Panormus by Romans; a second fleet built, but lost by bad scamanship. Romans for a while abandon the sea; a great Roman victory at Panormus; a third fleet built and Lilybæum blockaded; Carthaginian victory at Drepanum, followed by loss of Roman transport fleet; Romans again abandon the sea; Hamilcar Barca occupies Mt. Ercte near Panormus, and subsequently the town of Ervx. and harasses the Romans; a volunteer fleet

under C. Lutatius Catulus succeeds in occupying the harbours of Lilybæum and Drepanum, and then decisively defeats Hanno off the Ægates Insulæ, thus ending the war. (Sicily becomes first Roman province.)

238. Sardinia and Corsica seized by Rome. (Become one province in 231.)

236. Hamilcar takes command in Spain, and founds a Punic empire; is succeeded by Hasdrubal, who founds Nova Carthago; the Iberus is fixed as the Punic boundary.

226-222. Great Gallic rising in Italy; Italians defeated at Fæsulæ, but Regulus wins a great victory near Telamon. Boii and Lingones submit, and the Insubres yield to M. Claudius Marcellus, after the capture of their chief towns Acerræ, Mediolanum, and Comum. (End of Gallic rising, and subjugation of Cisalpine Gaul.)

221. Hannibal succeeds to the command in Spain.

219. Saguntum besieged by Hannibal.

218-201. 2nd Punic, or Hannibalian, war. Fall of Saguntum. War declared by Rome. Hannibal crosses the Alps. Romans are defeated at the Ticinus and at the Trebia in 218; at the Trasimene lake in 217; at Cannæ in 216; policy of Q. Fabius Maximus Cunctator and M. Claudius Marcellus prevents further crushing disasters; P. and Cn. Scipio in Spain conduct the war with varying success, and stop reinforcements being sent into Italy Philip of Macedon makes alliance with Hannibal: siege and capture of Syracuse by Marcellus in 212; siege and capture of Capua; Nova Carthago surprised by P. Scipio; siege and capture of Tarentum by Q. Fabius; Hasdrubal eludes P. Scipio and enters Italy with reinforcements, but is intercepted and killed at the Metaurus in 207 by C. Claudius Nero and M. Livius Salinator, the consuls; Hannibal retires into Bruttium; Mago tries to raise the Gauls and Ligurians; P. Scipio carries the war into Africa, and, being joined by Massinissa, surprises Syphax; Mago and Hannibal are recalled; Scipio gains a decisive victory over Hannibal near Zama in 202, and so ends the war. (Carthage sinks from being a great power to the level of a trading town; Spain becomes two Roman provinces.)

214-205. 1st Macedonian war. Philip besieges Apollonia, but is checked in his designs by M. Lævinus; Rome forms a coali-

tion of Ætolians, Athens, Sparta, and Pergamus against Philip; no decisive action; Ætolians make peace with Philip, and Philip with Rome.

- 200-194. 2nd Macedonian war. Philip, having adopted an aggressive policy, attacks Attica; Athens is relieved by a Roman fleet, but nothing very decisive occurs till third campaign, when Flamininus, aided by the Ætolians, overruns Epirus and Thessaly, and a year later, after strengthening the Roman coalition, marches once more into Thessaly and wins the battle of Cynoscephalæ in 197; Philip is obliged to accept peace on humiliating terms; Nabis, the tyrant of Sparta, is crushed, and the independence of Greece is declared by Flamininus, after which Roman troops are withdrawn from Greek fortresses in 194.
- 192-190. War with Antiochus of Syria, who lands in Greece on the invitation of the Ætolians; he takes Chalcis and some towns in Thessaly, but is checked by M. Acilius Glabrio and M. Porcius Cato and defeated at Thermopylæ; he then withdrew to Asia, whither he was followed by L. Scipio and his brother Africanus, and crushed at Magnesia in 190.
- 184. Censorship of Cato, remarkable for its severity.
- 179. Tib. Gracchus conquers the Celtiberi; general pacification of Spain.
- 171-168. 3rd Macedonian war. Perseus starts with several successes, but from parsimony and cowardice lets his chances slip, and is beaten at Pydna in 168 by L. Æmilius Paulus. (Macedonia is divided into four confederacies; in 148 these are dissolved and it becomes a province.)
- 153-133. War in Spain with the Celtiberi, marked by treachery and cruelty on the part of Roman generals; Viriathus rouses the Lusitanians and defies the Romans; a succession of Roman defeats; rising of the Celtiberi; the northern province, except Numantia, reduced in 142; murder of Viriathus in 140; siege of Numantia continues; Rome twice makes peace and twice repudiates it; Scipio Æmilianus takes command in Spain in 134, and after a blockade of fifteen months destroys Numantia. (Roman supremacy acknowledged throughout Spain.)
- 149-146. 3rd Punic war. Carthage, after a stubborn siege, is captured and destroyed by P. Scipio Æmilianus Africanus minor (Formation of Roman province of Africa.)

- 146. This year also witnessed the destruction of Corinth by Mummius.
- 135-132. Servile war in Sicily, ended by P. Rupilius.
- 133. (1) Destruction of Numantia. (2) Attalus III. bequeathes his kingdom Pergamus to the Romans. (The Province of Asia.)
 (3) Tib. Gracchus, tribune, attempts reforms; Leges Semproniæ; is killed in a riot.
- 123, 122. C. Gracchus, twice tribune; popular champion; Leges Semproniæ; establishes the "equester ordo"; numerous reforms; colonisation; proposes extension of full franchise to the Latins, etc.; Livius Drusus outbids Gracchus for the popular favour; Gracchus is killed in a riot.
- Great defeat of the Allobroges and Arverni; foundation of the province of Narbonensis. (Colony of Narbo planted in 118.)
- 113. The Cimbri defeat Papirius Carbo near Noreia in Istria.
- 112 106. War against Jugurtha. Incompetence and corruption of Roman generals; arrival of Metellus in Numidia; victory on the Muthul; is superseded by Marius in spite of his successes; Jugurtha is betrayed by Bocchus to Sulla, and Marius ends this shameful war with a triumph.
- 107. Marius throws open the army to all citizens.
- 105. The Cimbri slaughter 80,000 Romans at Arausio on Rhone; they then move westward; are driven from Spain by the Celtiberi; turning eastward are joined by the Helvetii and Teutones.
- 102. Marius defeats the Teutones at Aquæ Sextiæ (Aix in Provence), while Catulus defends north Italy.
- 101. Marius annihilates the Cimbri at Vercellæ on the Raudine Plain.
- 103 99. 2nd Servile war in Sicily; leaders, Trypho and Athenio.
- 100. Leges Appuleiæ of the tribune Saturninus, carried by the army of Marius; the Senate and Equites appeal to Marius, who deserts the Democrats, and Saturninus is slain.
- 92. Iniquitous condemnation of P. Rutilius Rufus by the Equites.
- M. Livius Drusus, tribune, proposes to reform the equestrian lawcourts and to enfranchise the Italians; he is murdered, and his laws, the Leges Liviæ, are repealed.
- 91-88. The Social or Marsic war. The Italians force Rome to make them Roman citizens; Lex Julia grants "civitas" to those not in rebellion; Lex Plautia Papiria admits to the franchise all Italians applying to the practor within sixty days.

- 88-82, 1st Civil war, caused by the appointment of Sulla to the command against Mithradates; the people transfer it to Marius: Sulla marches on Rome and expels the Marians: but, on his departure to act against Mithradates in Greece, Cinna and Marius, supported by Sertorius, effect a revolution; proscriptions and reign of terror; Marius, consul for seventh time, dies in 86; Cinna continues his revolutionary government; nominates himself consul for four years in succession; is killed by his soldiers; Sulla makes moderate proposals to the government, but, on their being rejected, lands with five legions at Brundisium; is joined by M. Crassus, Cn. Pompeius, and others; besieges the younger Marius in Præneste, occupies Rome, secures Etruria after the flight of Carbo, and, having annihilated the Samnites at the Colline Gate, receives the title of Dictator: proscription of Marians and confiscation of property.
- 88-84. 1st Mithradatic war. Mithradates occupies most of Asia and massacres \$0,000 Romans; the Pontic fleet in the Ægean; Sulla captures Athens, which had admitted Archelaus, the admiral of Mithradates; also defeats the united Pontic armies at Chæronea, and again at Orchomenus; concludes peace with Mithradates. Meantime the government had continued to send out its own generals; against one of these, Fimbria, Sulla now advanced into Asia, but Fimbria killed himself, and his army surrendered. Sulla returns to Italy.
- 83. 2nd (so-called) Mithradatic war. Sulla left L. Murena behind with two legions to govern Asia; against orders Murena renewed the war and was defeated; evacuation of Cappadocia by the Romans.
- 81-79. Sulla's dictatorship. Leges Corneliæ of Sulla.
- 83-72. Sertorius maintains the Marian cause in Spain; heads a Lusitanian rising; becomes master of most of Spain; Latinises the province to some extent; is joined by Perpenna; Pompey is sent against them, and suffers defeat; the two Roman generals, Pompey and Metellus, then combine, but with no marked success; alliance between Sertorius and Mithradates; Sertorius is murdered, whereupon Pompey succeeds in ending the war in 72.
- 78. Death of Sulla. M. Æmilius Lepidus, the consul, vainly tries to repeal the Leges Corneliss.

74-63. 3rd Mithradatic war. L. Lucullus commands by land, M. Cotta by sea; the Roman fleet is destroyed, and Cotta besieged in Cyzicus; Lucullus relieves Cyzicus, and defeats Mithradates by land and sea; invades Pontus, and forces the king to take refuge in Armenia with Tigranes; follows him thither, and captures Tigranocerta and Nisibis; further success prevented by a mutiny of his troops; is compelled to retire into Asia Minor. Meantime Mithradates recovers his kingdom, and ravages Bithynia and Cappadocia. Pompey supersedes Lucullus in 66; invades Pontus; victory of Nicopolis: makes peace with Tigranes, forcing Mithradates to fly into Colchis (the Crimea); finding the king now beyond his reach, he continued his career of conquest elsewhere in the East; while Mithradates, abandoned by his own son Pharnaces, and foiled in his endeavour to unite all the barbarous tribes of Eastern Europe against Rome, put an end to his life in 63.

73-71. The Gladiatorial or Slave war. Spartacus, at the head of gladiators and slaves, intrenches himself on Mt. Vesuvius; gains victories over several Roman armies, but is finally blockaded in Bruttium by M. Crassus, defeated, and slain, while Pompey intercepts the fugitives from his army.

74-67. War with the pirates. M. Antonius receives a commission in 74 to clear the seas of piracy; fails signally; pirates destroy Delos and plunder the provinces and Italy; danger of famine in Rome; Pompey is given an extraordinary command against the pirates in 67; price of corn falls immediately; and the work of crushing piracy is most speedily and thoroughly performed.

66-63. Pompey's campaigns in the East and his settlement of it.

63. Consulship of Cicero. Conspiracy of Catiline baffled by him.

62. Pompey lands in Italy.

60. Pompey, Casar, and M. Crassus form a private compact to carry out their own designs (usually called the 1st Triumvirate).

59. Cæsar's first consulship; feeble opposition of his colleague
Bibulus to his measures. Lex Vatinia gives Cæsar a command in Cisalpine Gaul for five years.

 P. Clodius, tribune; Cicero banished; Clodius employs his office to carry out Cæsar's schemes.

57. Cicero recalled by Pompey's influence.

- 56. Conference at Luca. Measures of the triumvirs to continue their joint power.
- 55. Lex Trebonia prolongs Cæsar's command for a further five years, while Pompey receives Spain, and Crassus Syria, for the same period.
- 54. Death of Julia, Pompey's wife; departure of Crassus for Syria.
- 53. Defeat and death of Crassus by Parthians at Carræ.
- 52. Riots at the elections; Clodius killed by Milo; Pompey elected sole consul; his measures to outwit Cæsar, especially "lex Pompeia de jure magistratuum."
- 51. Proposal of Marcellus, the consul, to deprive Cæsar of his command; threat of Cato to prosecute Cæsar.
- Proposals as to Cæsar's resignation of his province; all futile;
 Pompey prepares for war.
- 58-51. Cæsar's conquest of Gaul. Two invasions of Britain.
- 49-45. 2nd Civil war. Pompey and his adherents against Cæsar Pompey embarks for Greece.
- 48. Cæsar crosses to Greece, is defeated at Dyrrachium, and retreats to Thessaly. Battle of Pharsalia; defeat of Pompey, who flies to Egypt, where he is murdered.
- 47. Alexandrine war. Defeat of Pharnaces at Zela by Cæsar. ("Veni, vidi, vici.")
- 46. African war; defeat of Pompeians at Thapsus; Cato commits suicide at Utica. Reform of the Calendar by Cæsar.
- 45. Spanish war; defeat of Pompeians at Munda.
- 44. Assassination of Cæsar by the republican leaders. M. Antonius secures Cæsar's papers and treasure. Octavius, Cæsar's greatnephew and heir, arrives in Rome, and assumes the name of C. Julius Cæsar Octavianus. The Senate recognises Octavian. M. Antonius besieges Decimus Brutus in Mutina. Cicero's Philippics, i.—iv., exposing and denouncing Antonius.
- 43-31. 3rd period of Civil war. (a) Antonius and Octavian against the republicans; (b) Octavian against Antonius.
- 43. Antonius is declared a public enemy. Defeat of Antonius at Mutina; death of the consuls Hirtius and Pansa. Reconciliation of Octavian and Antonius; a triumvirate formed for five years (Antonius, Octavian, Lepidus). Proscription of 2000 equites and 300 senators, M. Cicero and Q. Cicero among them. Philippics v.-xiv. delivered.
- 42. Campaign of Philippi; defeat of republicans; death of Brutus

and Cassius; Sextus Pompeius in Sicily rallies a remnant of

the republicans.

41. Rupture between Octavian and Antonius, brought about by Fulvia, the wife of M. Antonius, and his brother L. Antonius, who revolt and are besieged in Perusia. M. Antonius in Egypt.

40. Perusia captured. Open breach between Antonius and Octavian. Siege and treaty of Brundisium; temporary reconciliation between the rivals, confirmed by marriage of Antonius with Octavia, the sister of Octavian, on Fulvia's death. Sextus Pompeius occupies Sardinia and Corsica: famine in Rome. The Parthians invade Syria.

Conference at Misenum; terms arranged with Sextus Pompeius.
 The Parthians twice defeated by Ventidius.

38-35. War with Sextus Pompeius ('the Sicilian war'); Octavian meets with reverses; recalls Vipsanius Agrippa from Gaul, who raises a new fleet, and gains a great victory at Naulochus in 36; flight of Sextus Pompeius to the East, where he is put to death by the officers of Antonius in 35.

37. Conference at Tarentum. Renewal of triumvirate for five years.

36. Lepidus revolts; is at once crushed by Octavian; henceforth of no account. Antonius suffers severe losses in Parthia; retires to Egypt.

35-33. Octavian in Pannonia and Dalmatia; Antonius in the East.

32. Antonius divorces Octavia. Open rupture between Octavian and Antonius; declaration of war against Cleopatra.

31. Battle of Actium; total defeat of Antonius and Cleopatra.

 Octavian lands in Egypt; troops and fleet desert Antonius; suicide of Antonius and Cleopatra; regulation of Egypt.

29. Triple triumph of Octavian. Temple of Janus closed.

- 27. Octavian receives 'proconsulare imperium' for ten years, and the title Augustus. (Beginning of the Empire.) Provinces divided into (1) Senatorial, under proconsuls. (2) Imperial, under 'legati' of Emperor.
- 20. Restoration of the standards and prisoners by the Parthians.
- 19. Final subjection of the Cantabri by Vipsanius Agrippa. (27-19.)
- 15. Campaigns of Tiberius and Drusus. Rhæti, Vindelici, Norici.
- 12. Death of Vipsanius Agrippa. Question of the succession.
- 8, 7. Campaigns of Tiberius in Germany, a continuation of the work of Drusus.

- A.D. 4. Adoption of Tiberius by Augustus.
- 4-6. Campaigns of Tiberius in Germany.
- 7, 8. Pannonian war.
- Loss of three Roman legions in N.W. Germany; disaster in the Teutoberg Forest; Arminius annihilates army of Varus.
- 14. Death of Augustus; accession of Tiberius.
- 26. Retirement of Tiberius from Rome to Capreæ; Sejanus supreme.
- 54. Accession of Nero.
- 58-63. Campaigns of Corbulo in the East; Parthia and Armenia.
- 61. Massacre of Romans in Britain; Boadicea at head of the Iceni; decisive victory of Suetonius Paulinus over Britons at Camaledunum.
- 69. Year of three Emperors, Galba, Otho, Vitellius. Battle of Bedriacum; defeat of Otho by the army of Vitellius. Accession of Vespasian. Battle of Cremona; victory of Vespasian over Vitellius. Revolt of the Batavi under Civilis. (The Flavian dynasty begins.)
- 70. Siege and destruction of Jerusalem by Titus, son of Vespasian.
- 79. Eruption of Vesuvius and destruction of Pompeii.
- 78-84. Successes of Agricola in Britain; subdues Galgacus, and the Caledonians.
- 101-117. Reign of Trajan; reduces Dacia to a Roman province; conquest of Parthia, (N.B.—Roman Empire at greatest extent.)
- 161-180. Reign of Marcus Aurelius, called the Philosopher; triumph over the Parthians; great persecutions of the Christians; wars with the Marcomanni, Quadi, etc.
- 303. Diocletian persecutes the Christians.
- 307. Six Emperors at once; Constantine, Galerius, Severus, Maximian, Maxentius, Licinius.
- 313. Edict of Milan. Constantine allows the Christians a free exercise of their religion.
- 330. Foundation of Constantinople on the site of Byzantium.
- 361-3. Julian 'the Apostate' proclaimed Emperor by the army; endeavoured to suppress Christianity and revive Paganism; attempts to rebuild Jerusalem; killed fighting against the Persians.
- 364. Division of the Roman Empire into the Eastern and Western; Valentinian retained the Western Empire, assigning the Eastern to his brother Valens.
- 378. Battle of Hadrianople. Defeat of Valens by the Goths.

- 402, 3. Invasion of Italy by Alaric; is defeated by Stilicho.
- 410. Rome sacked by Alaric.
- 418. Roman troops withdrawn from Britain, being needed to fight against the invading barbarians.
- 476. Fall of the Western Empire before the repeated assaults of the barbarians. (End of ancient history.)
- (N.B.—The Eastern Empire lasts on till 1453, i.e., capture of Constantinople by the Turks.)

THE TWELVE CÆSARS.

Jul	ius C	læsar (. 48–4	
				A.D.				A.D.
Augustus	(Em)	eror),		27-14	Otho, .			69
Tiberius,		0	٠	14-37				69
Caligula,				37-41	Vespasian,)	The	(69-79
Claudius,				41-54	Titus,	>	Flavian	{ 79-81
Nero, .				54 68	Domitian.)	dynasty,	81-96
Galba				68-69				

THE AGE OF THE ANTONINES.

			A.D.		A.D.
Nerva,			96- 98	Antoninus Pius,	138-161
Trajan,			97-117	M. Aurelius Antoninus,	147-180
Hadrian,	b	0	117 138		

GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX.

Actium, a promontory in Acarnania, at the entrance of the Ambracian gulf, off which Vipsanius Agrippa, Octavian's great general and admiral, defeated Antony and Cleopatra in B.C. 31.

Ægates Insulæ, three small islands off the west coast of Sicily, between Drepanum and Lilybæum, near which C. Lutatius Catulus defeated Hanno, and ended the 1st Punic war in B.C. 242.

Alesia, the capital of the Mandubii, in Gallia Lugdunensis; here Vercingetorix was blockaded and forced to surrender by Cæsar in B.C. 52.

Allia, a small river about 11 miles from Rome, near Crustumerium, falling into the Tiber; on its banks the Gauls defeated the Romans in B.C. 390, afterwards burning Rome.

Allobroges, a powerful people of Gaul, dwelling between the Rhone and the Isara; chief town was Vienna (Vienne) on the Rhone; made subject to Rome in B.C. 120; their ambassadors were mainly instrumental in exposing Catiline's conspiracy in B.C. 63.

Aquæ Sextiæ (Aix in Provence), a Roman colony in Gallia Narbonensis, founded in B.C. 122; near this place Marius defeated the Teutones in B.C. 102.

Aquileia, a town in Gallia Transpadana at the very top of the Adriatic, founded as a colony by the Romans in B.C. 182 as a bulwark against the northern barbarians; a very strong fortress, being the key to North-East Italy; the Via Æmilia was carried on to it, and from it various roads branched off; destroyed utterly by Attila in A.D. 452, when its inhabitants escaped to the lagoons, where Venice was afterwards built.

Ariminum (Rimini), a town in Umbria on the coast, colonised by Romans in B.c. 268 as an outpost against the Gauls; originally the end of the Via Flaminia, the great northern road.

Avaricum (Bourges), capital of the Bituriges, in Gallia Aquitanica; Vercingetorix was besieged here by Cæsar in B.C. 52, defeated, and obliged to withdraw to Gergovia.

Baiæ, a town in Campania, on a small bay W. of Naples, and opposite Puteoli; abounding in warm springs; a favourite resort for health and pleasure; it was here that M. Marcellus, the younger, the destined heir of Augustus, died in B.C. 23.

Bedriacum, in Cisalpine Gaul between Cremona and Verona, celebrated for the defeat both of Otho and of the Vitellian troops in A.D. 69.

Beneventum, a town in Samnium, on the Via Appia, the great southern road; colonised by the Romans in B.C. 268 after the Samnite wars.

Bibracte (Autun), the ancient capital of the Ædui, between the Arar (Saône) and Liger (Loire), in Gallia Lugdunensis; scene of a murderous battle between Cæsar and the Helvetii in B.C. 58.

Brundisium (Brindisi), a town and harbour in Calabria; the Via Appia ended here, and it was the usual place of embarkation for Greece and the East; colonised by Rome in B.C. 244; in B.C. 40 it was besieged by M. Antonius, but a peace was arranged and a fresh division of the provinces made by the triumvirs.

Byzantium (Constantinople), on the Bosphorus, always of great commercial importance owing to its position, which commanded the entrance to the Euxine; stood a siege of three years before it was taken by Severus in A.D. 196; a new city was built on its site in A.D. 330 by Constantine, who changed its name and made it the capital of the empire.

Camalodunum (Colchester), the capital of the Trinobantes in Britain, and the first Roman colony, founded by Claudius in A.D. 43; Suetonius Paulinus gained a great victory here over Boadicea and the Iceni in A.D. 61.

Cannæ, a village in Apulia, near Canusium; memorable for Hannibal's crushing defeat of the Romans in B.C. 216.

Cantabri, a highland people in the N. of Spain; very fierce and warlike; Augustus made frequent efforts to subdue them (27-19), but it was not till B.O. 19 that Vipsanius Agrippa settled them in the plains and ended their aggressions.

Capreze, a small island, off Campanian coast; here Tiberius spent

the last ten years of his reign.

Capua, the chief city of Campania; its wealth in early times attracted the Samnites, and, to guard against their encroachments, Capua put itself under Roman protection in B.C. 343; in spite of this, Capua revolted to Hannibal after the battle of Cannæ, but, being retaken by the Romans in B.C. 211, was so fearfully punished that it never recovered its old prosperity.

Carræ (Haran or Charran), a city of Osroëne in Mesopotamia, not far from Edessa; M. Crassus and a Roman army were annihilated here by the Parthians, with the loss of standards and prisoners.

Carthago Nova (Carthagena), a town with very fine harbour on the E. coast of Hispania Tarraconensis, founded by Hasdrubal in B.C. 243 as the capital of the Punic Empire in Spain; was surprised and captured with a vast amount of stores and war material by P. Scipio in B.C. 210.

Casilinum, a fortified town in Campania, commanding the Vulturnus, celebrated for its heroic defence against Hannibal in B.C. 216.

Caudine Forks or Caudinæ Furculæ, a narrow pass near Caudium in Samnium, on the road from Capua to Beneventum; here two consular armies surrendered, and were sent under the yoke by Gaius Pontius, the Samnite, in B.C. 321.

Cheronea, in Bootia, near the frontier of Phocis, memorable for Sulla's victory in B.c. 86 over Mithradates.

Cirta (Constantine), a city of the Massylii, in Numidia, 50 miles from the sea; the capital of Syphax, Massinissa, and his successors. Here Jugurtha massacred a large number of Italian traders in B.C. 112, and so provoked Rome to declare war.

Clusium, one of the most powerful of the twelve Etruscan cities, situated on a slight hill above the river Clanis; the capital of Porsena; besieged by the Gauls in B.C. 391; probably became a colony afterwards.

Corfinium, chief town of the Peligni in Sammium, strongly fortified; the Italians in the Social war intended it to be the new capital of Italy under the title 'Italica.'

Corinth, situated on the isthmus between the Corinthian and Saronic gulfs; its favourable position between two seas raised it to great commercial prosperity, which it retained until its sack by L. Mummius in B.C. 146; it was rebuilt and colonised with veterans by J. Cæsar in B.C. 46.

Cynoscephalæ, two hills near Scotussa in Thessaly, where Flamininus, the Roman general, broke the power of Philip of Macedon in B.C. 197, and declared the independence of Greece.

Drepanum or -a, a seaport town in the N.W. corner of Sicily, founded by Hamilcar as a Carthaginian naval station at the beginning of 1st Punic war; here Adherbal won the only great naval victory of the Carthaginians in this war in B.C. 249.

Dyrrachium, a town in Illyria, on a peninsula in the Adriatic; the usual landing-place for those crossing from Brundisium; of considerable commercial importance; starting point of the Via Egnatia leading to the east; headquarters of Pompey in the Civil war with Cæsar, and the scene of Pompey's most successful managuvres.

Ecnomus, at mouth of river Himera in S.W. Sicily: great victory of Regulus over Punic fleet in B.C. 256.

Gergovia, the capital of the Arverni, on a high hill, S.W. of the Elaver (Allier), in the neighbourhood of the modern Clermont; was besieged by Cæsar without success, B.C. 52.

Iceni, inhabitants of Norfolk and Suffolk, revolted under queen Boadicea, and inflicted great loss on the Romans till subdued by Suetonius Paulinus at Camalodunum in A.D. 61.

Herda (Lerida), a town in Hispania Tarraconensis, on a height above the river Scoris; in B.C. 49 J. Cæsar defeated Afranius and Petreius, the 'legati' of Pompey here.

Insubres, a Gallic people who crossed the Alps and settled in the N. of Italy (Gallia Cisalpina); chief town, Mediolanum (Milan); conquered by the Romans under M. Marcellus in B.C. 222.

Lautulæ, a village of the Volsci in Latium, in a narrow pass between Tarracina and Fundi; here the Sammites in B.C. 316 inflicted a severe defeat on the Romans; the loss of this pass leaving Latium at the mercy of the Sammite armies.

Lilybæum (Marsala), a town in W. of Sicily, with an excellent harbour, opposite to the Hermæan Cape (Cape Bon); the principal Carthaginian fortress in Sicily; the scene of much of the fighting in the 1st Punic war; eventually occupied by C. Lutatius Catulus in R.C. 242.

Luca (Lucca), a Ligurian city in upper Italy at the foot of the Apennines; became a colony in B.C. 177; scene of a conference between Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus in B.C. 56, at which certain differences were adjusted.

Lugdunum (Lyons), chief town of Gallia Lugdunensis, at the confluence of the Arar (Saône) and Rhodanus (Rhone); was made a colony in B.c. 43; the "ara Augusti" (cf., Juvenal, i. 44), dedicated by Gauls to Augustus, stood here; iamous for its vast public works, especially its great aqueduct. N.B.—Lugdunum Batavorum, i.e. Leyden.

Magnesia, a city in N.W. Lydia, at the foot of Mount Sipylus, famous as the scene of the victory gained by L. Scipio and his brother Africanus in B.C. 190 over Antiochus the Great of Syria, which secured to the Romans the Empire of the East.

Mantua, on the river Mincius, in Gallia Transpadana, in the

neighbourhood of which Vergil was born in B.C. 70.

Massilia (Marseilles), a Greek colony in Gallia Narbonensis, dating from 7th century B.c. on the coast of the Mediterranean, with a splendid harbour easily protected; a great naval and commercial city from the earliest times; cultivated Roman friendship, and so retained its independence; in the civil war in B.c. 49 it sided with Pompey, but after a stubborn siege had to submit to Cæsar; under the Empire became one of the chief seats of learning.

Messana (Messina) on the N.E. coast of Sicily on the straits; with excellent harbour and situation for trade; seized in B.C. 282 by some mercenaries, called Mamertini, it became involved in war with Hiero; the Mamertini invoked aid from Carthage and from Rome; both powers were glad to interfere, and Messana thus became the immediate cause of the 1st Punic war. B.C. 264.

Metaurus, a small river in Umbria, flowing into the Adriatic, rendered memorable by the defeat and death of Hasdrubal on its banks in B.C. 207; this was the death-blow to Hannibal's hopes of help from Spain.

Minturnæ, a town in Latium, on the frontiers of Campania; Via Appia passed through it; became a colony in B.C. 296; near it, in the swamps of the Liris, Marius was caught hiding, in B.C. 88.

Misenum, a promontory in Campania, S. of Cumæ; Augustus formed a harbour here and made it the chief naval station in the Tyrrhene sea; here in B.O. 39 a conference was held and peace was made by Octavian and Antony with Sextus Pompeius.

Munda, a Roman colony in Hispania Batica, apparently in the neighbourhood of Cordova; J. Casar gained a great victory over the sons of Pompey here in B.C. 45.

Mutina (Modena), an important town in Gallia Cispadana on the Via Æmilia; became a colony in B.C. 183; celebrated in the civil war for the siege by M. Antonius and the loss of both Roman consuls, Hirtius and Pansa, in B.C. 44, 43, while trying to relieve it.

Mylæ, a town and harbour on a promontory in N.E. Sicily near Messana and Naulochus; great victory of C. Duilius over Carthaginian fleet in B.C. 260.

Narbo (Narbonne), on the river Atax in S. Gaul, capital of Gallia Narbonensis; became a colony in B.C. 118 (the first Roman colony in Gaul).

Naulochus, a naval station on N.E. coast of Sicily, between Mylæ and Pelorus; decisive naval victory of Vipsanius Agrippa over Sextus Pompeius in B.C. 36.

Nola, an ancient town in Campania, between Capua and Nuceria; faithful to Rome even after battle of Cannæ; was burnt to the ground by its Samnite garrison in the Social war; afterwards rebuilt and made a colony by Vespasian.

Numantia, most important town in Celtiberia, near the sources of the Durius (Douro); strongly fortified by art and nature; the head-quarters of the Celtiberi in their long wars with Rome; taken after a protracted and horrible siege by Scipio Æmilianus in B.O. 133 and utterly destroyed.

Orchomenus, a town in Bœotia N.W. of lake Copais, on the river Cephissus; memorable for Sulla's victory in B.C. 85 over Archelaus, the general of Mithradates.

Pergamum or -us, a celebrated town in Asia Minor, the capital of the kingdom of Pergamus, in S. Mysia; the kingdom dating from B.C. 280 reached its greatest extent after the defeat of Antiochus the Great by the Romans in B.C. 190; it was then, too, that the town was at its highest splendour, its library a rival to that of Alexandria, and itself the centre of a great school of literature. Attalus III., dying in B.C. 133, bequeathed his kingdom to Rome, and it became then 'the province of Asia.'

Perusia (Perugia) in East of Etruria between lake Trasimene and the Tiber, one of the twelve cities of the Etruscan Confederacy; subsequently became a colony of Rome; in the civil wars it was blockaded for several months by Octavian, and starved into surrender, B.C. 41, 40.

Pharsalia or -us, a town in Thessaly near the frontiers of Phthiotis, W. of the river Enipeus; near Pharsalus was fought the decisive battle between Pompey and Cæsar in B.c. 48.

Philippi, a city in Macedonia, on Mount Pangæus; two battles here in B.C. 42, in the first of which Brutus was victorious, but Cassius killed himself; in the second (twenty days later), Brutus was defeated and committed suicide; Antony and Octavian were commanding against the republicans; Horace, the poet, was a tribune in the army of Brutus.

Pistoria, a small place in Etruria, between Luca and Florentia; Catiline made his last stand here, and was defeated and killed in B.C. 62.

Placentia (Piacenza), a colony in Cisalpine Gaul, on right bank of the Po, founded at the same time as Cremona, on the left bank of the Po, B.C. 218, to secure that district against the Boii and Insubres; a source of annoyance to the Gauls, who took and destroyed it in B.C. 200, but it was soon rebuilt and became an important place.

Porta Collina, most northerly of the gates of Rome, at junction of Via Salaria and Via Nomentana; in B.C. 82 Sulla and M. Crassus annihilated 40,000 Samnites here, who had sided with the Marians and marched on Rome.

Portus Itius (? Witsand), a harbour of the Morini on N. coast of Gaul, from which J. Cæsar sailed for Britain in B.c. 55.

Præneste, an ancient town of Latium, about 20 miles S.E. of Rome; strongly fortified by art and nature; the younger Marius took refuge here, and was besieged by Sulla in B.C. 82; on its surrender most of its citizens were butchered.

Pydna, a town of Macedonia, W. of the Thermaic gulf; under its walls Æmilius Paulus utterly defeated Perseus, the last king of Macedon, in B.C. 168.

Rhæti (the Grisons in Switzerland, and greater part of the Tyrol), a brave and warlike people, who caused the Romans much trouble by their marauding expeditions into Gaul and the N. of Italy; not finally subdued till the reign of Augustus by his stepsons, Drusus and Tiberius, B.C. 15. Rhætia then became a province, to which Vindelicia was afterwards added; Tridentum (Trent) was the capital.

Rubicon, a small river in Italy, falling into the Adriatic a little N. of Ariminum; the boundary in republican times between Gallia

Cisalpina and Italy proper; hence Casar, in crossing it at the head of an army in B.C. 49, virtually declared war on the Republic.

Rutupiæ (Richborough), a port of the Cantii (Kent) in S.E. Britain, the usual landing-place from Gessoriaeum (Boulogne); famous for its oysters.

Saguntum, a town in Hispania Tarraconensis, S. of the Iberus (Ebro), about 3 miles from the coast; although south of the Iberus, it had formed an alliance with Rome; hence its siege by Hannibal in B.C. 219 was the immediate cause of the 2nd Punic war; it fell after a siege of eight months, was destroyed, but afterwards rebuilt by the Romans.

Sentinum, a fortified town in Umbria, near which the Romans, in B.C. 295, after a hard battle, defeated a coalition of Samnites, Gauls, and Umbrians.

Sirmio, a beautiful promontory on the S. shore of the Lacus Benacus (Lago di Garda), on which the poet Catullus had an estate.

Syracuse, the wealthiest and most populous town in Sicily, on S. part of E. coast, near the mouth of the river Anapus; famous in Roman history for the great siege, lasting two years, by M. Marcellus, who took it, in spite of the skilful opposition of Archimedes, in B.C. 212; from this time Syracuse became part of the province of Sicily.

Tarentum, an important Greek city in S. Italy, on W. coast of Calabrian peninsula, with a fine harbour; rich and powerful for many centuries, it came into conflict with Rome in B.C. 281; the Tarentines called in the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus; the Romans suffered severely till Pyrrhus was defeated at Beneventum by M'. Curius in B.C. 275, and withdrew from Italy; Tarentum surrendered in B.C. 272, and had to give up arms, ships, and walls. In the 2nd Punic war Tarentum revolted to Hannibal, B.C. 212, but was retaken in B.C. 209 by Q. Fabius Maximus, and so severely treated that it never recovered its former importance.

Telamon, a town and harbour of Etruria; in its neighbourhood a great victory was gained over the Gauls by C. Atilius Regulus in B.O. 225.

Thapsus, a city to the extreme south of the old Roman province of Africa, where J. Cæsar, in B.C. 46, defeated the Pompeians; Cato Uticensis committed suicide after the battle.

Tibur (Tivoli), an ancient town of Latium, 16 miles N.E. of Rome, on left bank of the Anio; one of the chief towns of the Latin League; famous for its beautiful natural scenery and magnificent waterfall; extensive remains of the Emperor Hadrian's splendid villa still exist.

Tigranocerta, the capital of Armenia, strongly fortified on a height in the valley between Mts. Masius and Niphates; under its walls Lucullus defeated Mithradates the Great and Tigranes, and captured the city, B.c. 69.

Tolosa (Toulouse), a town of Gallia Narbonensis on the Garumna; famous for its temple; town and temple were plundered by Cæpio in B.C. 106; his utter defeat by the Cimbri in the next year was regarded as a judgment on his impiety; hence a proverb for ill-gotten gains, "Aurum Tolosanum habet."

Tomi, a town of Thrace, on W. shore of the Euxine, a little south of the mouths of the Danube; Ovid's place of exile, A.D. 8 to 18.

Trasimene Lake (Lago di Perugia), a lake in Etruria, between Clusium and Perusia, memorable for Hannibal's great victory over the Consul C. Flaminius in B.C. 217.

Tusculum (near Frascati), an ancient town of Latium, about 10 miles S.E. of Rome, high on the hills, one of the strongest positions in Italy; a favourite summer residence of the Roman nobles; Cicero had a villa here in which he composed the *Tusculanæ Disputationes*; became a municipium in B.C. 381.

Utica, greatest city of ancient Africa, after Carthage, 27 Roman miles N.W. of Carthage, a little W. of the mouth of the Bagradas; in 3rd Punic war Utica sided with Rome against Carthage and received much of the Carthaginian territory; the younger Cato (Uticensis) held it for the Pompeians in the Civil war, but after their rout at Thapsus in B.C. 46, he committed suicide here.

Uxellodunum (near Cahors), in Gallia Aquitanica; here the Gallic patriots made their last hopeless stand against J. Cæsar, B.C. 51.

Vadimo Lacus (Lago di Bassano), a small circular lake in Etruria, minutely described by the younger Pliny; celebrated for two great defeats of the Etruscans by the Romans, first in B.c. 310, and again, when united with the Boii, in B.c. 283.

Veii (Isola Farnese), one of the most ancient and powerful cities of Etruria, on the river Cremera, about 12 miles from Rome;

Rome's most dangerous rival in early times; unceasing hostilities between them for more than three and a half centuries; Veii was at last captured by the Dictator Camillus, after a siege of ten years, in B.C. 396; its land was apportioned among the plebs., and its site abandoned.

Venusia (Venosa), a town of Apulia, S. of the river Aufidus, the birthplace of the poet Horace, B.C. 65; the remnants of the Roman army took refuge here after battle of Cannæ in B.C. 216.

Vercellæ, in Gallia Transpadana, on the Raudine plain, between the Padus (Po) and Eporedia; it was here that Marius, with the aid of Catulus, destroyed the Cimbri in B.c. 101.

Vesuvius, the celebrated volcanic mountain in Campania, S.E. of Neapolis. In its crater Spartacus intrenched himself, and made it the headquarters of the Gladiatorial or Servile war, 73-70. The great eruption occurred in A.D. 79, burying Herculaneum and Pompeii.

Zama Regia (Djama), a strongly fortified city in the interior of Numidia, on the borders of the Carthaginian territory, about 80 miles S.W. of Carthage; the great battle, in which Scipio Africanus major in B.C. 202 defeated Hannibal and ended the 2nd Punic war, takes its name from this place, though it was actually fought on the river Bagradas (Mejerdeh), from which Zama is distant some days' march to the east.

Zela or Ziela, a city in S. Pontus; twice memorable in Roman history, first in B.C. 67, when Triarius, a lieutenant of Lucullus, and 7000 Romans were defeated by Mithradates; secondly, when J. Cæsar defeated Pharnaces, the son of Mithradates, in B.C. 47, with such ease that he is said to have sent home merely this despatch, "Veni, vidi, vici," intended perhaps as a covert criticism on Pompey's vaunted exploits against Mithradates.

BIOGRAPHICAL INDEX.

Agricola, Cn. Julius, born A.D. 37, served first in Britain A.D. 60 under Suetonius Paulinus; father-in-law of Tacitus, the historian; consul in 77; governor of Britain in 78, for seven years, during which he subdued the whole country except the highlands of Caledonia; recalled by Domitian from jealousy in 85; died, perhaps from poison, in 93. Tacitus' Life of Agricola is still extant.

Agrippa, M. Vipsanius, born in B.C. 63, was with Octavius (afterwards the Emperor Augustus) at Apollonia when J. Cæsar was murdered; induced Octavius to proceed at once to Rome and enter on his heritage; his great military abilities contributed largely to the success of Augustus; his chief military exploits were his naval victory over Sextus Pompeius at Naulochus in 36; commanded the fleet at Actium in 31; finally subdued the Cantabri in 19; besides various commands in Gaul, Germany, Syria, and Pannonia; executed several great public works, e.g., the Portus Julius (a harbour formed out of the Avernus and Lucrine lake), the Pantheon, the Aqueduct at Nemausus (Nismes). In 21 he married Julia, daughter of Augustus, by the Emperor's order, and it was generally supposed Agrippa would succeed his master. He died, however, before him in B.C. 12, a disappointed man, having ceased to be in favour before his death. A daughter of his, Vipsania, was married to Tiberius, afterwards Emperor; another daughter, Agrippina, was married to Germanicus, among her children being the Emperor Caligula, and Agrippina the mother of the Emperor Nero: his three sons, C. Cæsar, Lucius Cæsar, and Agrippa Postumus all died young, the last being put to death by Tiberius, on his accession in A.D. 14.

Antiochus the Great (B.C. 223-187), King of Syria, was engaged in constant wars with his neighbours, and with marked success, until

he crossed into Europe in 196, and seized the Thracian Chersonese. This brought him into contact with the Romans, who commanded him to restore it to the Macedonian king; he refused, in which resolution he was strengthened by Hannibal, who had come to his court in 195. Hannibal's advice was to invade Italy at once, but Antiochus, instead, crossed into Greece in 192, and was defeated at Thermopylæ in 191, and again at Magnesia in 190; severe conditions were imposed on him, and in robbing a temple to raise some of the war indemnity, he was killed by the people of Elymais, 187.

Antonius, M., the triumvir, was brought up by Lentulus, his stepfather, who was afterwards put to death by Cicero in 63 as one of Catiline's conspirators; hence Antony's antipathy to Cicero; served with some distinction in Syria in 58; joined Cæsar in Gaul in 54, and from this time onwards, became an active partisan of Cæsar; tribune of the people in 49, he vetoed the decree of the Senate ordering Cæsar to dismiss his army and give up his province; then fled to Cæsar's camp; commanded the left wing at the battle of Pharsalus; consul in 44, he offered Cæsar the royal diadem at the Lupercalia; after Cæsar's murder, Antony secured his papers and treasure, and proceeded to make political capital out of his will and documents, and also to falsify his notes and forge others. Cicero unmasked his designs in the Philippic orations, and Octavian set to work, with the aid of the Senate, to crush Antony. Meantime Antony set out for Cisalpine Gaul, which had been decreed him by the people in direct opposition to the Senate; but Decimus Brutus refused to surrender the province. This led to the siege of Mutina by Antony, and to his being declared a public enemy by the Senate. consuls, Hirtius and Pansa, and Octavian marched against him in 43 and raised the siege; both consuls, however, had fallen, and the Senate had foolishly shown its jealousy of Octavian. The latter had already marched against Antony, who had entered Italy with seventeen legions, when a conference took place at Bononia; a coalition was arranged, and Antony, Octavian, and Lepidus received a commission as "triumviri reipublicæ constituendæ," known as the 2nd Triumvirate, for the next five years. The mutual enemies of each were proscribed, Cicero falling a victim to Antony's hatred. In 42 Antony and Octavian crushed the republicans at Philippi, but a rivalry was already growing up between the two, and, though the treaty of Brundisium for a while averted a collision, by giving Antony command in the East, and Octavian in the West, it was clear that sooner or later the two would resort to force. In 37 the Triumvirate was renewed for five years; but Antony on returning to the East, severed the last link between Octavian and himself by abandoning his wife, Octavia, the sister of Octavian, and surrendering himself entirely to the fascinations of Cleopatra. In 36 he invaded Parthia, but was defeated with heavy loss. Both rivals meantime had been preparing for the inevitable struggle, and in 32 Octavian obtained the abrogation of Antony's command in the East, and the declaration of war against Cleopatra. The contest was decided by the sea-fight off Actium, 31, in which Antony, deserted by Cleopatra, was completely defeated. He fled to Alexandria, but, on Octavian's appearance before that city in 30, put an end to his life.

N.B.—The triumvir must not be confused with (1) M. Antonius, the famous orator, born B.C. 143, died 87; who held a command against the pirates in 104; and as a member of Sulla's party, was put to death by Marius. (2) C. Antonius Hybrida, younger son of the orator, and uncle of the triumvir, who was Cicero's colleague in the

consulship, B.C. 63.

Appius Claudius Cæcus, the Censor, was elected censor in 312 without having been consul previously; whilst censor he built the famous Appian aqueduct, and began the Via Appia; held this office for four years; was twice consul, 307 and 296; in his old age induced the senate to reject the terms of peace offered by Pyrrhus; was the earliest Roman writer in prose and verse whose name we know.

Arminius, chief of the Cherusci, a tribe inhabiting the country to the N. of the Hartz mountains. Born in B.O. 18 he had served in Roman armies, and had even been enrolled among the 'equites.' In A.D. 9 he persuaded his countrymen to rise against Rome. The result was that Quintilius Varus, the Roman governor, with three legions, was destroyed, and the Romans had to relinquish their possessions beyond the Rhine. Subsequent attempts of Arminius against Germanicus were not so successful. He was put to death by his own relations in A.D. 19, on a charge of aiming at absolute power.

Aurelius, M. Antoninus, 'the philosopher,' Roman emperor, A.D. 161-180; was adopted by Antoninus Pius; on his accession he shared the empire with L. Aurelius Verus, who carried on war successfully against the Parthians. Both emperors then had to defend the northern frontier. M. Aurelius, with his headquarters in Pannonia, prosecuted the war against the Marcomanni with

great success. In 174 he gained a decisive victory over the Quadi (the miracle of 'the Thundering Legion'). Still the Marcomanni gave him no rest, and he died in the middle of the war, in 180, at Vindobona (Vienna). He was devoted to philosophy and literature; a Stoic throughout his life; his *Meditations* in twelve books, still extant, are the noblest exposition of heathen philosophy we possess; and yet his philosophy did not prevent two persecutions of the Christians in his reign.

Brutus, L. Junius, the nephew of Tarquinius Superbus; his elder brother having been murdered by this tyrant, he escaped a like fate by feigning idiocy; famous in Roman legend as having expelled the Tarquins and abolished monarchy, B.C. 510; put his own two sons to death for trying to restore the Tarquins; was the first consul with Tarquinius Collatinus.

Brutus, M., the tyrannicide, nephew of Cato of Utica, by whom he was trained in strict aristocratical principles; hence on the outbreak of the civil war he joined Pompey; was pardoned by Cæsar after Pharsalus, 48, and received from him numerous marks of confidence and favour, being made by him governor of Cisalpine Gaul in 46 and prætor in 44. Still he persuaded himself into the belief that, by murdering Cæsar, the old republic might be restored. (Ides of March, B.C. 44.) After Cæsar's death he proceeded to Macedonia, the province Cæsar had promised him; here he was joined by Cassius and others of the conspirators, and their united forces were opposed by Antony and Octavian. Two battles were fought near Philippi in 42, and the republican cause was finally lost. Brutus put an end to his life after the defeat. An ardent student, given to indulging in philosophic dreams, Brutus lacked judgment and a true appreciation of facts.

Camillus, M. Furius, one of the great heroes of the early republic; after holding numerous offices he was made dictator in B.C. 396, when he utterly defeated the Faliscans and Fidenates and took Veii; accused of having unfairly distributed the booty at Veii, he went into voluntary exile in 391. Next year the Gauls took Rome; Camillus was recalled just in time to save his countrymen from utter ruin; henceforth, to the end of his life in 365, he was engaged in constant wars on Rome's behalf. A resolute champion of the patricians against the plebeians, he was also the great general of

his age; hence certain reforms in the army, such as the introduction of pay, the formation in three lines, etc., have been attributed, without much authority, to him; in fact, his whole history is so overlaid with legend and tradition that it is difficult to extract the truth.

Caractacus, king of the Silures (South Wales) in Britain, bravely defended his country against the Romans, in the reign of Claudius; defeated at length and captured, A.D. 51, he was taken to Rome; but Claudius, delighted with his nobility of character, pardoned him.

Cassivellaunus, a British chief, north of the Thames, to whom the supreme command was entrusted by the Britons on J. Cæsar's second invasion in B.c. 54; was defeated, and obliged to sue for peace.

Catilina, L. Sergius, the descendant of an ancient patrician family which had sunk into poverty; his youth and early manhood were stained by every sort of profligacy and crime; prætor, B.C. 68, in Africa; impeached by P. Clodius for oppression in his province, he was disqualified for the consulship in 65; exasperated at this, he formed a plot to murder the consuls. This scheme just miscarried, owing to the signal being given prematurely. A second conspiracy on a much more extensive scale, in which all the large discontented classes were to take part, was only discovered and crushed by the vigilance of the consul Cicero. Murder, firing of the city, confiscation of property, were all to be resorted to; but Cicero having accurate information, through the envoys of the Allobroges and also through Fulvia, of every step in the conspiracy, was able at the right moment to denounce Catiline, having first thoroughly secured the city. Catiline fled from Rome to Etruria, and made a desperate stand with his army of outlaws and malcontents at Pistoria. Here he fell, fighting to the last, and most of his followers with him. Meantime the other chief conspirators had been arrested by Cicero's orders and summarily executed.

Cato, M. Porcius, the Censor; born B.C. 234; early distinguished himself as a soldier; quæstor in 204 under the Proconsul Scipio Africanus major in Sicily and Africa; a Roman of the old school, he entirely disapproved of the luxury and extravagance of Scipio and his friends. As governor of Sardinia in 198, he obtained a great reputation for pure morality and strict virtue, as a type of which he is always represented in Latin writers. His greatest

military success was in 191, when he served under Glabrio against Antiochus in Greece, and, by turning the king's position at the pass of Thermopylæ, practically won the battle. Henceforth he seems to have devoted himself to civil life, waging war with the bitterest animosity against the new luxury and refinement imported from Greece; especially bitter was he against the Scipios; censor in 184, he carried out his duties so sternly that his censorship became a by-word for old-fashioned strictness. Narrow-minded and bigoted to an almost ridiculous degree, he was one of the chief instigators of the third Punic war, with his incessant "Delenda est Carthago." He died in B.C. 149, aged 85. Of his numerous works one only, the De Re Rustica, has come down to us.

Cato Uticensis, great-grandson of the above, was born in B.C. 95; he inherited the same stern, unyielding character, and was conspicuous for his rigid morality among the profligate nobles of his age; served first against Spartacus in 72; as tribune of the plebs in 63 supported Cicero in proposing the death of the Catilinarian conspirators; as a leader of the aristocratical party violently opposed Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus; on the outbreak of civil war he joined Pompey in Greece; crossed to Africa after Pharsalus; was present at Thapsus in 46; committed suicide at Utica when all was lost. He is personified by Lucan as a type of godlike virtue, and there are frequent allusions in Roman poetry to his "nobile letum."

Cicero, M. Tullius Cicero, born B.C. 106 at Arpinum; carefully educated under the best teachers, he came forward as a pleader, delivering his first extant speech in 81; next year he defended Roscius of Ameria ("pro Roscio Amerino"), but having offended Sulla by opposing one Chrysogonus, a favourite freedman of his, he left for Athens; here he studied hard, and formed the friendship of Pomponius Atticus; returning to Rome in 77, he met with extraordinary success as a pleader, and his fame in the forum paved the way for him to the offices of state. In 75 he was quæstor in Sicily; in 70 he impeached Verres for extortion and general maladministration in the same province; prætor in 66; consul in 63, though a 'novus homo'; to this post he was raised by a union of the optimates with the equites. His consulship was memorable for the second conspiracy of Catiline, and its suppression by Cicero's energy and prudence. As soon as he laid down his consulship, his political enemies and the friends of the conspirators attacked him, and Cicero, deserted by the party which had used him as long as it suited their

turn, found himself almost alone.—a cruel blow to his personal vanity and self-importance. Clodius led the agitation against him, and eventually, as tribune, in 58 brought forward a measure inflicting banishment on anyone who had executed a citizen without trial. Cicero, seeing that this was aimed directly at him, withdrew as an exile to Greece. A year later he was enabled to return by the influence of Pompey. Disposed at first to oppose the triumvirs, and lead the senate against them, he was outmanœuvred by the reconciliation between them effected at the "Conference of Luca" in 56, and was compelled to submit and recant. For the next few years Cicero played no very prominent part in politics. In 52, very much against his will, he was sent as proconsul to Cilicia, returning to Rome in 49, on the eve of the outbreak of civil war between Pompey and Cæsar. After hesitating for some time, he decided to throw in his lot with Pompey; Cæsar, however, pardoned him after Pharsalus, and treated him with much consideration. During the next four years he busied himself with numerous philosophical and rhetorical works, and it was not till Cæsar's murder in 44 that he again emerged into public life. In the confusion consequent on this event, the senate, with Cicero at its head, turned to C. Octavius (Octavian). Seeing through Antony's designs, Cicero attacked him with unsparing vehemence in the Philippic orations. Hence, when the second triumvirate was formed, Cicero again found himself left to his fate, and Antony was not slow in exacting vengeance for "the Philippics," sending soldiers to execute Cicero, 43. As a statesman, Cicero cannot be defended from the charge of weakness and vacillation, while his vanity was excessive to an almost ridiculous degree; on the other hand, he was honest in an age when political honesty was almost unknown, true to his friends who deserted him shamefully in the hour of need, and the embodiment of constitutional government. In less troubled times, Cicero would doubtless have fared better; indeed, he might have succeeded in impressing on posterity the same high estimate of himself which he honestly believed to be his due, but to which his public career scarcely entitles him. But it is as an orator and master of the Latin language that Cicero's name will always be remembered. In him Latin reached its highest perfection, whether as a written or spoken tongue. Of his orations fifty-six are extant; also numerous philosophical and rhetorical works, and a vast mass of correspondence, some 800 letters, to and from friends and political connections.

Civilis, Claudius, leader of the Batavi and Frisii in their revolt from Rome, A.D. 69, 70; his brother had been put to death on a false charge of treason, and he himself with difficulty escaped; he took up arms on pretence of supporting the cause of Vespasian, and defeated in succession the generals of Vitellius in Gaul and Germany, but continued in open revolt even after the death of Vitellius; was at length defeated by Petilius Cerealis, when peace was granted to the Batavi on favourable terms. What became of Civilis is not known.

Clodius, P. Claudius Pulcer, generally known as Clodius, the notorious enemy of Cicero, and one of the most profligate characters of the age. Brought to trial in B.C. 61 for profaning the mysteries of "the Bona Dea," he was only acquitted by bribing the judges. Cicero upset his attempt to prove an alibi; hence Clodius conceived his hatred of him. He had himself adopted into a plebeian family, and was made a tribune of the people in 58, when he supported the coalition of Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus. Amongst several measures he then introduced, was a bill to punish with banishment any one who had executed a citizen without trial. This was, of course, aimed at Cicero for his execution of the Catilinarian conspirators, and Cicero had to go into banishment for one year. He was recalled, however, next year, owing to the influence of Pompey and the efforts of Milo, another tribune. This led to a fierce quarrel between Clodius and Milo; both kept gladiators in their pay, and fights in the streets were frequent. In 53 Milo stood for the consulship and Clodius for the prætorship; party spirit was running very high, Milo supporting the government, Clodius the popular party and Cæsar's interests; at length a collision took place on the Via Appia near Bovillæ, in which Clodius was killed, B.C. 52. Riots ensued. and Pompey was chosen by the Senate as sole consul to restore order: Milo was tried, and, though defended by Cicero, was condemned and exiled to Massilia (Marseilles).

Corbulo, Cn. Domitius, a distinguished general under the Emperors Claudius and Nero; carried on war successfully in Germany against the Chauci in A.D. 47; but is chiefly famous for his campaigns, begun in A.D. 54, against the Parthians, whom he repeatedly defeated and inspired with a wholesome respect for the Roman name; his successes, however, provoked Nero's jealousy, and this able, unambitious soldier, whose only fault was his loyalty and strict adherence to duty, was ordered to put an end to his own life, A.D. 67.

Crassus, P. Licinius (orator), the greatest orator of his time (cf. Cicero's work De Oratore, where Crassus probably expresses Cicero's own sentiments); first attracted notice at age of twenty-one by prosecuting C. Carbo (B.O. 119); Carbo committed suicide. Consul in 95 he proposed a law to compel all non-citizens to quit Rome; the rigour of this law was one of the causes of the Social War; when censor in 92 he caused the schools of the Latin rhetoricians to be closed; his exertions in support of the proposals of M. Livius Drusus, the tribune, for reform are said to have hastened his death, which followed a week later, B.C. 91.

Crassus, M. Licinius, known either as "dives" or as the Triumvir, joined Sulla against the Marian party, and was rewarded with donations of confiscated property; prætor in B.C. 71 he defeated Spartacus, and ended the Gladiatorial or Servile war: consul in 70 with Pompey, when the Sullan constitution was overthrown by their legislation; joins Cæsar in 66 in heading the democratic opposition to Pompey; censor in 65, proposes to admit the Transpadanes to citizenship, and to make Egypt tributary: member of the coalition, known as the 1st Triumvirate (Pompey, Cæsar, Crassus); consul a second time in 55, receives a command for five years in Syria; defeated by the Parthians at Carræ in the plains of Mesopotamia, and treacherously murdered. M. Crassus was undoubtedly the greatest financier of his time; and to make money he employed every means-working mines, farming, loans, house-building, the instruction of numerous slaves in lucrative arts. financing of companies,—all were tried successfully by Crassus. In his first consulship he entertained the populace at 10,000 tables; and no doubt it was largely his enormous wealth which induced Cæsar and Pompey to associate him with them in their ambitious designs.

Curius, M'. Dentatus, a hero of the Roman republic, celebrated in later times as a type of frugality and virtue. Consul first in B.c. 290 he successfully opposed the Samnites, while in his second consulship in 275 he so thoroughly defeated Pyrrhus at Beneventum that that king was obliged to quit Italy. Censor in 272 he carried out several important public works, e.g. the "Anio Vetus," an aqueduct built from the spoils of Pyrrhus.

Drusus, Claudius Nero, the elder, the son of Tiberius Claudius Nero and Livia, and younger brother of the Emperor Tiberius; born B.C. 38; popular with the people, and trusted by Augustus; carried on

war against the Germans, B.C. 12-9, advancing as far as the Albis (Elbe); died in B.C. 9, owing to a fall from his horse.

Drusus Cæsar, or Drusus the Younger, was the son of Tiberius by Vipsania; married Livia, the sister of Germanicus; was poisoned by Sejanus to get him out of his way in the line of succession A.D. 23.

Duilius, C., consul B.C. 260, famous as the first Roman admiral who won a great naval victory; in this year he defeated the Carthaginians with heavy loss at Mylæ, off N.E. Sicily in the 1st Punic war, grappling their ships by means of grappling-irons (corvi) and boarding-bridges; he then raised the siege of Segesta, and on his return to Rome, commemorated the victory by a column in the Forum, adorned with the beaks of the conquered ships ("Columna Rostrata").

Fabius, Q. Maximus (Cunctator), one of the most prominent characters in Roman history during the earlier half of the Hannibalian war; after the disaster at lake Trasimene in B.C. 217, Fabius, who had already held all the highest offices with distinction, was appointed dictator. His policy, from which came the name "Cunctator" or "Delayer," was to avoid all direct encounter with Hannibal, but to keep a close watch on him, and harass him by cutting off supplies and making his position untenable. This policy was sound and for a while successful; but when his detractors, misinterpreting his caution, clamoured for war and raised his "magister equitum" to the same level as himself in the field, the inevitable result followed. After more disasters, his countrymen once more made use of his services, electing him consul both in 215 and 214. It was by his advice that a reconciliation was effected between senate and people, and the rule of skilled generals initiated; to his policy it is due that no further crushing disaster has to be recorded after Cannæ: it was his influence which made the senate persist in the siege of Capua in 211; in 209 he recaptured Tarentum; while in 208 he rendered, perhaps, his most sterling service of all by reconciling the consuls elect, M. Livius Salinator and C. Claudius Nero, on the very eve of Hasdrubal's arrival in Italy. In the later phases of the war, he appears to less advantage; perhaps he was jealous of a younger rival; at any rate, he opposed the policy of invading Africa, and apparently failed to grasp the significance of the new era in the war inaugurated by Scipio. He died in 203, opposed to Scipio to the last.

Gracchus, Tiberius Sempronius, the son of Cornelia and brotherin-law of Scipio Æmilianus Africanus minor; the distress of the poorer classes deeply excited his compassion. Accordingly, when made tribune in B.C. 133, he proposed an agrarian law with a view to creating an industrious class of agriculturists, and checking the avarice of the nobles and the use of slave labour. The public land was to be portioned out in small lots at moderate rents, and the wealth of Attalus, King of Pergamus, unexpectedly bequeathed in this year to the Roman people, was to be used in stocking the farms, etc. A commission was appointed to carry out the scheme, but when Tiberius tried to secure re-election as tribune, a riot was set on foot by the aristocrats, whom P. Scipio Nasica headed, and Tiberius was killed, at the age of 35.

Gracchus, Gaius Sempronius, brother of the above, and, like him. an ardent reformer of the people's wrongs—though he went much further. Tribune in B.c. 123 and 122 he at once renewed his brother's agrarian law, set on foot a scheme of colonisation, and distributed cheap corn: he bettered the lot of the soldier, by giving him the right of 'provocatio,' by shortening the term of service, and by supplying his clothing from the State funds. Also, he enacted that the 'judices' should be chosen from the 'equites,' not as before from the Senate, and that the Senate should decide the provinces which the consuls should have, before their election. The Senate, unable to resist Gaius, determined to outbid him, and so undermine his influence with the people. Accordingly Livius Drusus, another tribune, came forward with the most extravagant proposals in the people's interests—proposals never intended to be carried into effect, The plot succeeded; Gracchus failed to secure re-election for 121; his enemies impeached his acts; a riot ensued in the Forum, and Gaius, with 3000 of his friends, was slain.

Hadrianus, P. Ælius, usually called Hadrian, the Roman Emperor, A.D. 117-138; a soldier from his earliest years; married into the Emperor Trajan's family, and rapidly rose in favour at Court; accompanied Trajan on most of his expeditions, e.g., against the Dacians, in Pannonia, and against the Parthians. When Trajan died at Cilicia in 117, Hadrian was proclaimed Emperor by the legions in Syria. After making peace with the Parthians, he returned to Rome in 118; next he went to Mœsia and made peace with the Sarmatæ; and, henceforth, his reign proceeded undisturbed,

save by a formidable conspiracy of the nobles, which he suppressed with ruthless severity, and later by a revolt of the Jews, lasting five years, 131–136. A great traveller, he visited nearly all parts of his Empire, and, wherever he went, left wonderful buildings behind him, especially in Athens, where he spent three years. In Britain, he drew a wall across the country from the Solway to the mouth of the Tyne. The reign of Hadrian may be regarded as one of the happiest periods in Roman history. His policy was to preserve peace with foreign nations, and promote the welfare of his subjects by the administration of justice, both at home and in the provinces, the execution of great works of public utility, and the encouragement of science, art, and literature. Towards the end of his reign his health failed, his character deteriorated, and he became cruel and suspicious. He was succeeded by Antoninus Pius, whom he had adopted.

Hamilear Barca, founder of the "factio Barcina," commanded the Punic forces in Sicily in 247; at this time the Romans were masters of all Sicily save Drepanum and Lilybæum. In spite of this, Hamilcar established himself on Mt. Ercte for nearly three years in the midst of the enemy's country, defying all efforts to dislodge him, and from this stronghold ravaging the south Italian coast; next he seized the town of Eryx, and held it against the Romans till peace was made in 241. His next feat was to crush the revolt of the Punic mercenaries, which he succeeded in doing after all the other Carthaginian generals had failed and when the position of Carthage was almost desperate (241-238 "the Inexpiable war"). But his greatest achievement of all was the foundation, partly by force and partly by negotiation, of a new Punic Empire in Spain, which should be the starting point of fresh hostilities against Rome. This he actually accomplished in eight years (236-228); and, when he fell fighting against the Vettones in 228, and his son-in-law, Hasdrubal, took up the task and founded New Carthage, this new empire was already firmly established. Hamilcar Barca left three sons, the three most famous Carthaginian generals in the 2nd Punic war, Hannibal, Hasdrubal, and Mago.

Hannibal, son of Hamilcar Barca, the greatest general of antiquity, born about B.C. 247; served under his father in Spain; succeeding him in 221 as commander-in-chief, he at once proceeded to put into execution the great scheme for which his father had lived and toiled, viz., the invasion of Italy at the head of a veteran army, recruited

and trained in Spain. Accordingly, in B.C. 219 he provoked Rome to declare war by sacking Saguntum,—a city which, though south of the Ebro, had a separate alliance with Rome. Crossing the Pyrenees and Alps with 25,000 men, almost before the Romans realised that he had started. Hannibal won a succession of victories which almost paralysed Roman resistance; the Ticinus and the Trebia in 218; the Trasimene Lake in 217; Cannæ in 216; but in spite of his brilliant victories, Hannibal had miscalculated the strength of Italy and the hold of Rome upon her allies and subjects : added to this he was fighting in the enemy's country; supplies were difficult to procure; reinforcements failed to reach him; promised alliances came to nothing; the home government became lukewarm in its support, just when help was most needed; so that after an heroic contest of sixteen years, carried on almost single-handed, Hannibal was forced to confess himself beaten and yield to Scipio at Zama, B.C. 202. The dream of his life was over; but still he lived for revenge, offering his services to Antiochus the Great of Syria in 193, who, however, was too vain to make use of the great general's unrivalled experience. Next he went to Prusias, king of Bithynia, always in hopes of being able to deal Rome a blow; hence it is not to be wondered that the Romans demanded his surrender, and at length took steps to enforce the demand. Aware of their intentions, Hannibal, to avoid falling into their hands, took poison, which he carried for that purpose, about B.C. 183. Roman writers, never remarkable for their impartiality, have been led by their terror of the great Carthaginian's name, to attribute all sorts of vices to Hannibal; these are certainly not substantiated by them, for even by their own admissions he showed a generosity and magnanimity towards the dead and prisoners which have no counterpart in the annals of their own generals.

Hasdrubal, the son of Hamilear Barca and brother of the great Hannibal; left in command in Spain by Hannibal on starting for Italy in B.C. 218 to collect and train new armies, which he was eventually to lead to his brother's support. In this design Hasdrubal found himself considerably thwarted by Publius and Gnæus Scipio, who had been sent to Spain for this express purpose; hence it was not until 207 that he managed to elude the Roman armies, and make his way to Italy. Once again, however, the luck was against him; his despatches were intercepted; the Roman generals combined and encountered him in superior force at the Metaurus,

207, annihilated his army and killed him before Hannibal so much as knew that he had started. As a soldier and administrator Hasdrubal was perhaps little inferior to his more famous brother, and the Romans showed their appreciation of his merit by the desperate efforts they made to prevent his effecting a junction with Hannibal.

Hiero, king of Syracuse B.C. 270-216; was voluntarily elected king by his fellow citizens after his defeat of the Mamertines in 270. Though at first opposed to Rome, Hiero found it more to his interest to break with Carthage in the 1st Punic war; so, though he had begun to besiege Messana with the Punic general Hanno, on its being seized by Appius Claudius, he concluded a peace and alliance with Rome in the next year, B.C. 263; from which date till his death, nearly half a century, he remained loyal to Rome, and frequently assisted with men, food, and money in times of need.

Jugurtha, king of Numidia, was a grandson of Masinissa; was brought up by his uncle Micipsa with his own two sons; his ability and skill, however, roused the jealousy and apprehension of Micipsa, and to get rid of him on a plausible plea, he sent Jugurtha to Numantia with a contingent of troops to serve in the siege under Scipio Africanus minor. Here Jugurtha gained great distinction and learned the Roman art of war, and, what perhaps served him still better afterwards, the corrupt state of Roman political life. On Micipsa's death, Jugurtha was left with his two foster-brothers to share the kingdom, but his ambition led him to murder both of them in spite of remonstrances from Rome. In carrying out his schemes, however, he had murdered a number of Italian traders in the town of Cirta; this led to a tardy declaration of war by Rome in B.C. 112. but Jugurtha, by employing lavish bribery, induced one general to do nothing: the next, who was thoroughly incompetent and, as such, completely representative of the party that sent him out, he utterly defeated: Metellus, who succeeded to the command in 109, did effect something, forcing Jugurtha to fly to the Gætuli, but political jealousy occasioned his recall in 107, and the substitution of Marius in his stead. Thus for six years the war dragged on, and Jugurtha could fairly boast that the balance of success had been on his side, till the Romans stooped to treachery and induced his father-in-law, Bocchus, to betray him to Sulla, 106. Taken to Rome, he figured in the triumph of Marius, and was then thrown into a dungeon and either starved or strangled.

Lepidus, M. Æmilius, the triumvir, prætor in B.c. 49, supported J. Cæsar in the civil war: in 46 shared the consulship with Cæsar. and in 44 acted as his 'magister equitum,' receiving from him the government of Gallia Narbonensis and Hither Spain: being in the neighbourhood of Rome at the time of Cæsar's murder, in command of a legion, he supported Antony, and then retired to his province. After being defeated at Mutina in 43, Antony fled to Lepidus, who espoused his cause against the Senate and crossed the Alps at the head of a powerful army: in N. Italy he was joined by Octavian, and now was formed the famous triumvirate (Antony, Octavian, and Lepidus). In 42 Lepidus, now consul for second time. remained in Italy, while Antony and Octavian went to Greece to conduct the campaign of Philippi. After the republican defeat, Lepidus found himself ignored in the division of provinces and legions, and a quarrel seemed imminent between the triumvirs, when matters were once more arranged, in 40, at the treaty of Brundisium. Lepidus now received Africa as his province, and here he remained till 36. In this year he was summoned to Sicily by Octavian to assist in the war against Sextus Pompeius, but, irritated at being treated as a subordinate, he made an attempt to seize Sicily for himself. Octavian crushed him at once, but, though he deprived him of all real power, contemptuously allowed him to retain his office of Pontifex Maximus: henceforth he lived in retirement, dying in B.C. 13, an absolute nonentity in the political world.

Licinius, C. Stolo, tribune of the people from B.C. 377–367; with his colleague, L. Sextius Sextinus, he brought the long struggle between patricians and plebeians to an end by a series of bills, generally known as "the Licinian Rogations." These became law, after ten years of incessant opposition, in B.C. 367. Their main provisions were: (a) consuls, and not military tribunes with consular power, were to be elected in future, and one consul must be a plebeian; (b) relief of debtors by deduction of interest already paid from original debt, and by payment in instalments; (c) not more than 500 jugera of public land to be occupied by any one citizen, or more than 100 oxen and 500 sheep to be grazed on the common pasture; (d) a fair proportion of free labourers to be employed by landlords.

Livins, M. Salinator, consul in B.O. 219 with L. Æmilius Paulus in the Illyrian war; impeached and condemned for embezzlement on his return, probably unjustly; at any rate, Livius took his sentence on much to heart that he withdrew from active life, till the consuls

compelled him in 210 to return to Rome; in 207 he was elected consul a second time, and in conjunction with C. Claudius Nero, once an enemy but now reconciled by the mediation of Fabius Maximus, defeated Hasdrubal at the Metaurus, and so relieved Rome of further anxiety about the ultimate fate of Italy. The next two years Livius acted as proconsul with an army in Etruria; in 204 he was censor with his old colleague Nero, and their old animosity once more broke out, occasioning grave scandal. It was in his censorship that he imposed a most unpopular tax on salt; hence his nickname "Salinator."

Lucullus, L. Licinius, prætor in B.C. 77, and consul in 74, fought on the side of Sulla in the civil war against Marius; received the command against Mithradates in 74, and carried on this war with great success for eight years, relieving Cyzicus and invading Pontus; then carrying the war into Armenia, he crossed the Euphrates and won the great battle of Tigranocerta in 69, but, when preparing to push his conquest still furthur, his army mutinied, and, his lieutenants urgently demanding reinforcements, he was forced to retreat, before his work was done. In 67 Lucullus was superseded, and it fell to Pompey to reap the chief fruits of his previous victories, and the credit of ending the struggle. On his return to Rome, Lucullus, gave himself up entirely to luxury and indolence, and his name became proverbial afterwards for magnificent extravagance. Of literary tastes himself, he posed as a patron of literary men in general. He died in 57 or 56.

Mæcenas, C. Cilnius, a Roman of equestrian rank, descended from the old Etruscan nobility; one of the chief friends and advisers of Augustus, he enjoyed his confidence to such a degree that, in Augustus' absence, Mæcenas governed Rome and Italy entirely, e.g., in B.C. 36, and again in 31; but towards the end of his life a coolness sprang up between the two, and Mæcenas retired entirely from public life, and gave himself up to literary pursuits; his patronage of Vergil, Horace, and other literary men of the time has doubtless done more to perpetuate his fame than the very real services he rendered to Augustus as a statesman. Between him and Horace a warm friendship existed throughout their lives, and there are numerous allusions to it in the poet's works. He died in B.C. 8, and Horace's death followed in the same year.

Marcellus, M. Claudius, five times consul; the conqueror of Syra

cuse; in his first consulship he conquered the Insubrian Gauls, captured Mediolanum (Milan), and won the spolia opima. After the battle of Cannæ, 216, Marcellus, as prætor, consul, and proconsul, did good service in the south of Italy in checking Hannibal's designs and restoring Roman confidence and prestige. Consul for 3rd time in 214, he was sent to take command of the war in Sicily; here he captured Syracuse in 212 after a long and memorable siege; returning to Italy, he once more took charge of the war against Hannibal in the South, but was defeated and slain with his colleague in 208 near Venusia. He seems to have been a rude, stern soldier; brave, no doubt, but foolhardy at times, and certainly unscrupulous and cruel; in combination, however, with the cautious Fabius Cunctator he was of the greatest value to Rome in the troubled times after Cannæ.

Marcellus, M., son of Octavia, and nephew of Augustus, born B.c. 43, adopted by the emperor in 25, and married to his daughter Julia; curule ædile in 23; died after a short illness at Baiæ in the same year. His death was mourned as a public calamity. Augustus himself pronounced the funeral oration, and Vergil wrote the famous passage in Æn. vi., ll. 862–884, to commemorate him.

Marius, C., born at Arpinum, B.C. 157, of an obscure plebeian family; entered the ranks of the army at an early age; served under Scipio Æmilianus, at Numantia: tribune of the people in 119: married Julia, J. Cæsar's aunt, and became one of the chief popular leaders at Rome. In 109 he was 'legatus' to the Consul Metellus in the war against Jugurtha; and in 107 was elected consul, and given the command in Africa by a special decree of the people, in direct opposition to the senate. Marius inaugurated his command by throwing open the army to all citizens, even the capite censi; hence the rise of a professional class of soldier whose interest it was to provoke and prolong wars. The Numidian war was brought to a close by the treacherous surrender of Jugurtha to the Romans, but the real credit of this result rested with Sulla, the 'legatus,' rather than with Marius, the general, in spite of the great preparations he had made for the campaign. From this time begins that jealousy between the two which ended in the first civil war at Rome, B.C. 106. Meantime Italy had been threatened by a vast horde of barbarians, the Teutones and Cimbri; they had already defeated several Roman armies, when Marius was called to the rescue. Taking up a fortified

position on the Rhone he awaited the attack of the Teutones, and utterly defeated them at Aquæ Sextiæ in 102; the Cimbri meanwhile had forced their way into Gallia Transpadana, when Marius, ably assisted by the proconsul Catulus, destroyed them in like manner at Vercellæ on the Raudine Plain in 101. The most extravagant honours were paid to Marius after his victories, and this may have helped to bring out the worst features in his character. Possessing none of the qualities of a great statesman, depending entirely for his popularity on his military exploits, and withal of a brutal and arrogant disposition, untrue to friends and cruel to enemies, there was no place for his activity except in the field. After carrying the "Leges Appuleiæ" by the aid of the tribunes Glaucia and Saturninus, backed by his army, he suddenly deserted the democrats to whom he owed everything. But his popularity was already on the wane even with the mob, when the outbreak of the Social war in 90 once more gave him employment; he gained some successes over the Marsi, but these were totally eclipsed by the victories obtained by Sulla, and it became abundantly clear that the star of Marius was setting. Still he had set his heart on obtaining the command against Mithradates, which the senate had given to Sulla at the end of the Social war, 88. In order to gain his object, Marius allied himself with the tribune P. Sulpicius Rufus, who brought forward various measures, the "Leges Sulpiciæ," to weaken Sulla's position and advance Marius, and finally, by decree of the people, conferred on Marius the supreme command against Mithradates. The result was the investment of Rome by Sulla, the death of Sulpicius, and the flight of Marius, 88; but no sooner had Sulla left Italy to assume the command against Mithradates than the consul, Cinna, broke his oath to observe the constitution, made common cause with Marius, seized Rome, and secured the election of Marius as consul (for the 7th time) for the year 86. Now began a reign of terror; Marius butchered all against whom he had the least grudge, and confiscated their property; his fearful excesses were beginning to alienate even the most extreme of his supporters, when he suddenly fell ill, and died in 86 at the age of 71. His son, the younger Marius by adoption, followed in his father's footsteps, displaying the same ferocious and merciless disposition; but his career was short, for after being defeated at Sacriportus in Latium by Sulla, he took refuge in Præneste and stood a siege, but, on the news of Sulla's great victory at the Colline Gate in 82, put an end to his life.

Masinissa, a king of Numidia, who, in the 2nd Punic war, fought first on the Carthaginian and then on the Roman side; on the arrival of Scipio (Africanus major) in Africa, Masinissa, who had suffered considerably for his desertion of the Punic cause, at once joined him and rendered valuable service owing to his intimate knowledge of the country and Numidian warfare. He first assisted to burn the camp of his rival Syphax, who was now leagued with Carthage, and subsequently commanded a large force of cavalry at the battle of Zama in 202, which contributed greatly to the victory of the Romans. As a reward for his services, he received a very large accession of territory, and by his constant aggressions on his crippled neighbour, Carthage, was mainly instrumental in provoking the 3rd Punic war, -a result which Rome had doubtless foreseen. Roman writers have extolled him as a pattern of loyalty; perhaps it would be more correct to regard him as a far-sighted monarch with a nice calculation of his own interest; brave and energetic undeniably, but loyal only where there was something to be gained.

Mithradates VI., the Great, king of Pontus, B.C. 120-63, a man of extraordinary ability and versatility; having extended his empire by the conquest of his neighbours one after another, he at length came into contact with Rome; the first Mithradatic war, from 88-84, brought on by his repeated aggressions in Asia, opened favourably for the king: he occupied the province of Asia, and ordered a general massacre of Roman and Italian citizens (80,000), his fleet meantime operating in the Ægean; but, on the arrival of Sulla in Greece, Archelaus, the general of Mithradates, was twice defeated in Bœotia, at Chaeronea in 86, and again at Orchomenus in 85, and the king was obliged to sue for peace and accept Sulla's terms. Meantime Sulla returned to Italy, leaving Murena with two legions to govern Asia, but ordering him to abstain from aggression. Murena, however, renewed the war, entered Pontus and was defeated. The Romans had to evacuate Cappadocia. This is sometimes called the 2nd Mithradatic war, 83-82. In 75 Mithradates formed an alliance with Sertorius, who in return sent him Roman officers, but Mithradates refused to invade Italy. The third and most important war lasted from 74-63. It broke out in consequence of the king seizing Bithynia. Lucullus led the Roman armies with great skill and drove the king out of Pontus, forcing him to take refuge with his son-in-law, Tigranes, in Armenia. Next, Lucullus crossed the Euphrates in 69, fought a great battle under the walls of Tigranocerta, took Nisibis, and was preparing to advance again when a serious mutiny in his army compelled him to retreat into Pontus, where he learned of the defeat of Triarius and 7000 Romans at Ziela. In 66 Pompey superseded Lucullus, who had become unpopular with the equites, or party of commercial interests, by his rearrangement of Asia. Pompey reaped the fruit of his predecessor's labours, and, finding the work well in train, defeated Mithradates and drove him into Colchis. The king next formed a daring but futile scheme for invading Italy from the north by the aid of the Getæ and Sarmatæ, but, finding himself now deserted even by his own son, Pharnaces, he killed himself, B.C. 63.

Mummius, L., sometimes called "Achaicus" from his conquest of the Achæans; prætor in Further Spain in 153, he gained some successes against the Lusitanians. Consul in 146, he defeated the army of the Achæan league at the Isthmus of Corinth, entered that town without opposition, and rased it to the ground. Vast quantities of works of art were carried off to Rome, and this example set by Mummius became the custom henceforth amongst Roman generals.

Nero, C. Claudius, consul in B.C. 207 with M. Livius Salinator, his old political rival; Nero was in the south of Italy watching Hannibal's movements, when the news that Hasdrubal had entered the north reached him; with a small force of picked men he at once started to join his colleague in Etruria, marching with such secresy and rapidity that neither Hannibal nor Hasdrubal even guessed his departure. Nero's daring march and junction with Salinator led to the great victory at the Metaurus, 207, and the defeat and death of Hasdrubal.

N.B. Nero, the Roman Emperor, A.D. 54-68, was only a Nero by adoption; his original name being L. Domitius Ahenobarbus; he became a Nero when adopted by the Emperor Claudius who married Agrippina, his mother.

Ovidius, P. Naso, the poet, born at Sulmo, in the Pelignian hills, in B.C. 43; of equestrian rank; was destined to be an advocate, and carefully educated to that end, but finding his poetical bias too strong he deserted the law and gave himself up entirely to a literary life; his talents soon secured him a favourable reception in Rome,

and he had already won the favour of Augustus and become a recognised leader in literary circles, when suddenly in A.D. 8 he received a peremptory order to proceed at once to Tomi on the Euxine, near the mouth of the Danube, as an exile. The reason for this is not clearly known, but it is conceivable that Ovid had in some way become mixed up in one of the many Court scandals which saddened the close of Augustus' reign, and that the poet, as a prominent leader of fashion, and as one whose poetry might have had a demoralising influence, was selected as a scape-goat. It is significant that he never was able to secure his recall, but died at Tomi in A.D. 18. Ovid's chief poems-(a) amatory, 'Amores,' 'Ars Amatoria,' 'Remedium Amoris,' the 'Heroides,' imaginary letters from unhappy women: (b) the 'Metamorphoses,' a hexameter poem in fifteen books: (c) the 'Fasti,' a poetical Roman calendar; (d) the poems of his exile, the 'Tristia,' in five books, the 'Letters from Pontus,' in four books : (e) a tragedy, the 'Medea,' not extant, though once famous,

Paulus, L. Æmilius, consul for second time in B.C. 216 with C. Terentius Varro; lost his life in the battle of Cannæ, which was brought on against his advice by his colleague's rashness. Paulus was a staunch adherent of the aristocracy and was made consul by that party's influence to counterbalance the plebeian Varro.

Paulus, L. Æmilius Macedonicus, son of the consul killed at Cannæ; consul himself first in B.C. 181, and again in 168 when he finished the war with Perseus of Macedon at the battle of Pydna. Before leaving Greece on this occasion, Paulus sacked 70 towns in Epirus, because they had been in alliance with Perseus; a son of this Paulus was adopted by a son of Scipio Africanus major, and became afterwards famous as Scipio Æmilianus Africanus minor.

Perseus, the last king of Macedon, 178-168; waged war with Rome four years, 171-168; but was defeated owing to his timidity and miserable parsimony, and his kingdom brought to an end by L. Æmilius Paulus at the battle of Pydna, B.C. 168; after adorning his conqueror's triumph, Perseus was allowed to end his days in captivity at Alba.

Polybius, the historian, born about B.C. 204, the son of Lycortas, one of the most distinguished members of the Achaen league; was taken as a hostage to Rome after the conquest of Macedonia in 168; here his talents brought him into contact with Scipio Æmilianus,

and the two, from similarity of tastes, became close friends; was allowed to return to Peloponnese in 151; joined Scipio in his campaign against Carthage, and was present at the sack in 146; visited Corinth the same year just after its sack by Mummius; a great traveller and a shrewd observer; died about B.C. 122. His history in forty books began with the year 220 and ended at 146; his main object in writing it being to show how the Romans in this brief period of 53 years had conquered the greater part of the world; it contains frequent digressions and much supplementary matter, and is immensely valuable for its calm unbiassed account of Roman affairs. Unfortunately only the first five books are extant

entire; of the rest there are only fragments and extracts.

Pompeius, Cn. Magnus, the triumvir, born B.C. 106; joined Sulla in the 1st Civil war, and did good service by raising three legions for him in Picenum, B.C. 84; distinguished himself throughout the war as one of Sulla's most successful generals; was sent by Sulla to Sicily, where he put Carbo, the Marian general, to death, 82; next defeated Cn. Domitius Ahenobarbus and the Numidian king Iarbas in 81. For these successes he obtained the title "Magnus," and a triumph, though only an eques and not yet in his twenty-fifth year. After Sulla's death he resisted Lepidus in his attempt to repeal Sulla's laws, and drove him out of Italy. He was subsequently sent to Spain to operate against Sertorius; here he remained from 76-71, but gained no decisive advantage till Sertorius was treacherously murdered in 72, when Pompey soon brought the war to a close. On returning to Italy he helped Crassus to complete the conquest of Spartacus and his followers. Consul in 70, he deserted the aristocracy, already jealous of him, and becoming the great popular hero, proposed several measures in the people's interest. In 67 the tribune Gabinius brought forward a bill, conferring on Pompey supreme command against the pirates. In spite of the opposition of the aristocracy, this was carried, and so successful was Pompey that in forty days he had cleared the western sea of pirates and restored communication between Spain, Africa, and Italy, and within the next fifty days had entirely reduced them. His next command, conferred by the Lex Manilia, was against Mithradates, Thanks to the energy of Lucullus, victory was practically assured : Mithradates evacuated Pontus and retreated towards Armenia and then to Colchis; meantime Pompey reduced Pontus to the form of a Roman province; and then, in 64, marched into Syria, which he

also made into a province; in 63 he established Roman supremacy in Phonicia, Cole-Syria, and Palestine, and stormed and took Jerusalem. On the death of Mithradates he settled Asia and returned to Italy. Landing at Brundisium in 62, he disbanded his army, but on his return to Rome he found that the Senate would not ratify his acts in Asia. This unexpected opposition of the Senate threw Pompey into Cæsar's arms. A private compact was arranged, known as the first Triumvirate, consisting of Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus, to crush the aristocracy and carry out their several views. To cement this union, Pompey married Julia, the daughter of Cæsar. Next year Cæsar left for his province Gaul, while Pompey remained in Rome. Pompey was now gradually losing ground with all parties: the Senate feared and hated him; the people had deserted him for Clodius; and he found himself obliged to draw closer to Cæsar. Hence he became only second in the State. As Cæsar's influence increased, so Pompey's declined; and the death of Julia in 54 severed the last link between them, the breach being further widened by the loss of Crassus in 53. In order to reassert himself, Pompey now made overtures to the Senate and the aristocracy, and they were glad enough to call in his assistance to quell the frightful scenes of disorder which followed the death of Clodius. Pompey was made sole Consul, and henceforth may be regarded as the acknowledged head of the aristocratic party. It was now merely a question which was the stronger of the two, Cæsar or Pompey, and civil war was inevitable. Pompey, starting with a great advantage, sacrificed it by leaving Italy, and, though he outmanœuvred Cæsar on more than one occasion in the subsequent campaign, all was lost at Pharsalus in 48. After this decisive defeat, Pompey fled to Egypt, but was murdered on landing, and his cause, though supported by his sons and followers for some years, was practically lost by his untimely death.

Pompeius, Sextus, a younger son of the triumvir, accompanied his father in his flight to Egypt; after the battle of Munda hid himself for some time in Spain, but on Cæsar's departure, emerged from his hiding-place. Obtaining a large following and fleet, he made himself master of the sea and seized Sicily. His fleet enabled him to stop the corn supply to Rome, and the consequent discontent forced the triumvirs to come to terms with him. Peace was concluded at Misenum in 39, but war broke out again in the next year. Octavian suffered defeat, but Vipsanius Agrippa was more successful, and

destroyed the fleet of Sextus off Naulochus in 36; Sextus was captured in the following year, and put to death by the officers of M. Antonius at Miletus.

Pontius, Gaius, the general of the Samnites, who in B.C. 321 entrapped the two Roman consuls with their armies in the Caudine Forks (Caudinæ Furculæ), a mountain pass near Caudium in Samnium, on the Via Appia between Capua and Beneventum, and sent them under the yoke. The Romans, to save their lives, consented to a peace, which the senate at once repudiated, and war was renewed. Some thirty years later, Pontius was defeated and taken prisoner by the Romans, who showed their appreciation of his former mercy by executing him.

Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, B.C. 295-272, the greatest soldier and most able and ambitious king of his time; after a youth spent in constant fighting, he was called in to their aid by the Tarentines in B.C. 280, to protect them against Rome. For five years he remained master of Southern Italy, winning two great battles, the first at Heraclea in 280, the second at Asculum in 279; but in 278 he accepted an invitation from Syracuse to help them against the Carthaginians; in Sicily he met with remarkable success, but his long absence at a time so critical led to his ultimate defeat. After seizing nearly the whole of Sicily, he returned to Tarentum in 276. Immediately his kingdom in Sicily crumbled away, and when next he met the Romans, who had had time to recruit and modify their tactics, he was utterly defeated at Beneventum by M'.Curius Dentatus in 275, with heavy loss of men and elephants. After this he was forced to quit Italy and leave Tarentum to its fate. Had he been content to pursue one object steadily, he might, in combination with the Greek cities of S. Italy, have accomplished what Hannibal attempted some fifty years later. As it was, his brilliant achievements led to no permanent result, save that of strengthening Rome's position and weakening his own. He was killed in 272 at the siege of Argos, by the blow of a tile flung by a woman from a roof.

Scipio, P. Cornelius Scipio Africanus major, born in B.C. 234, is first mentioned at the battle of the Ticinus, 218, when he saved his father's life; tribunus militum at Cannæ, 216; helped to rally the remnant of the army afterwards, and sternly rebuked those Roman nobles who were for leaving Italy in despair; such an impression had his youthful heroism and self-reliance made on his countrymen

that, on the death of his father and uncle, P. and Cn. Scipio, in Spain after their defeat by Hasdrubal, he was appointed to this important command in 211 by the enthusiasm of the people, when he offered himself as a candidate. His success in Spain was striking and rapid; crossing the Ebro, he surprised Nova Carthago with an immense amount of war-material in 210, and Spain north of the Ebro submitted. In the next year, however, he would seem to have been guilty of some strange negligence, for Hasdrubal, against whom he was directly operating, contrived to elude him and march into Gaul; fortunately for Scipio's reputation, the consuls checked Hasdrubal's career at the Metaurus, and averted a danger which Scipio ought to have prevented; except for this blunder, his command in Spain, lasting from 211-206, was singularly successful and useful, and on his return to Rome he was, by the popular voice, appointed to take command in Sicily, after being elected consul before the proper age. Scipio was anxious to cross at once to Africa, but met with strong opposition from the old school of generals, headed by the veteran Quintus Fabius Maximus, partly perhaps from jealousy, partly from a not unnatural distrust of so bold a policy; all Scipio could obtain was the province of Sicily, with permission to cross into Africa, but as no army was given him, this seemed impossible: volunteers, however, flocked to his standard, and after spending some time in Sicily to complete his preparations, he crossed with M. Cato, his quæstor, and landed near Utica in 204; here he was joined by Masinissa, and in the following year he surprised and burnt the camp of Hasdrubal and Syphax, defeating them with great slaughter; these repeated successes of Scipio brought about the recall of Hannibal and Mago from Italy in 203, and the decisive battle took place on the river Bagradas, near Zama, in 202. Carthage was irretrievably beaten; and Scipio at the age of thirty-two, had beaten the greatest general ever opposed to the Roman arms. A magnificent triumph awaited him on his return, and the title "Africanus" was conferred upon him. In spite of his victory, Scipio had many enemies in the Senate, and this may have deterred him from taking any very prominent part in public affairs for the next few years. In 190 he served as 'legatus' under his brother Lucius Scipio Asiaticus against Antiochus, and helped to defeat that king at the battle of Magnesia. Both brothers were impeached in 187 for peculation in Asia, M. Cato prosecuting; L. Scipio was fined, but Africanus escaped on the strength of his

past services. Owing to this indignity he retired from Rome, and died not long afterwards. Great as Scipio's success was, it cannot be denied that he was extremely lucky more than once, and to imagine that he beat Hannibal entirely on his own merits would be a grave mistake.

Scipio, P. Cornelius Scipio Æmilianus Africanus minor, was a son of L. Æmilius Paulus, the conqueror of Perseus king of Macedon, and was adopted by the son of the great Scipio Africanus. Born about 185, he served under his father at Pydna in 168, but gained his first distinction in 151 as a military tribune in Spain; on the outbreak of the 3rd Punic war he went to Africa, and by his military skill and bravery, repaired to a great extent the blunders of the Consul; in 147, after standing for the ædileship, he was elected Consul, though only thirty-seven, and received Africa as his province; immediately on his arrival he began a vigorous siege of Carthage, which fell after a long and desperate resistance; for the capture and destruction of this city he received the title "Africanus." After reducing the Punic possessions to the form of a Roman province (the province of Africa), he returned to Rome and celebrated a splendid triumph. In 143 he was sent on a mission to Syria and Egypt to forward Roman interests. The long continuance of the war in Spain, with its many phases of mismanagement, dishonesty, and cruelty on the Roman side, called Scipio once more to the consulship in 134, with the command against Numantia; after restoring discipline in the demoralised army, he inclosed Numantia with double lines, and took it after a blockade of fifteen months; the city was utterly destroyed and the people sold as slaves; for this exploit Scipio received the title "Numantinus." Under Scipio were then serving Jugurtha and C. Marius. On his return to Rome, Scipio, though brother-in-law to Tiberius Gracchus, took the lead in opposing the popular party and thwarting the reforms of Gracchus; the people bitterly resented his course of action, and when he was found dead one morning in bed after a speech the night before, in which he spoke approvingly of the murder of Gracchus, it was generally believed that he had been assassinated, B.C. 129. That this Scipio was an able general admits of no reasonable doubt, but at the same time it may be well to remember that his contemporaries were men of very little mark, and therefore his merits appear the greater. As the friend of Polybius the historian, of the poets Terence and Lucilius, and many other literary men who were members of the famous

'Scipionic circle,' and owed much to his intelligent patronage, Scipio Africanus minor deserves to be remembered as much as by his military exploits. In him the sterner virtues of the old Roman had been mellowed and refined by the influence of Greek civilisation.

Sejanus, Ælius, son of the commander of the prætorian guards towards the close of Augustus' reign : succeeded his father in this responsible post; became the confidant of the Emperor Tiberius. and ultimately obtained such an influence over him that, on the Emperor's retirement to Capreæ, it was Sejanus practically who governed. Guilty of every kind of enormity, Sejanus neglected no means to secure his position, intriguing with the army, and procuring the death or removal of every possible rival, even the Emperor's own son Drusus being poisoned by his instrumentality. Already his way to the accession seemed clear, when suddenly Tiberius had his eyes opened to the real designs of this unscrupulous villain. In a long obscure letter to the Senate he removed him from his command of the prætorians, and left it to the Senate to take further steps. Never was a favourite's fall more rapid: no sooner was the letter read than his death was decreed and at once carried out with every mark of ignominy and contempt, many of his friends and relatives sharing the same fate, A.D. 31.

Seneca. Lucius Annæus, the philosopher, son of M. Annæus, the rhetorician, born at Corduba (Cordova) a few years B.C.; came to Rome to study rhetoric and philosophy: gained distinction as a pleader: became involved in a Court scandal, and was banished to Corsica by the Emperor Claudius in A.D. 41, but was recalled when Agrippina married the Emperor, and made tutor to her son Domitius, afterwards the Emperor Nero. On the accession of Nero in 54. Seneca, now one of his chief advisers, endeavoured to check the Emperor's cruel and vicious propensities; but at the same time he supported him in his opposition to his mother Agrippina, and was no doubt a party to her murder. In spite of his services, Seneca in turn fell a victim to the Emperor's cruelty; the philosopher's presence had become irksome, and his enormous wealth excited Nero's greed. No sacrifice that Seneca could make would satisfy his master, not even the offer of all his wealth and his own withdrawal from public life; in 65 came the order for his death, and Seneca with stoical fortitude, though possibly a certain theatrical affectation, put an end to his own life, his wife dving with him. Never perhaps

was a philosopher placed in a more difficult position than Seneca, and in estimating his character considerable allowance should be made for the very exceptional circumstances in which he found himself. He left numerous philosophical works, e.g., De Irâ; De Consolatione; De Clementia; De Beneficiis, etc.; a satire on the Emperor Claudius, the "Apocolocyntosis"; ten tragedies, intended rather for recitation than the stage. His style is clear and forcible, and he has always something worth saying, and says it well; a true man of the world, his judgment of men is sound and to the point; as a moral writer, few perhaps have treated their subject more attractively and with a truer regard for facts.

Sertorius, O., a Sabine, served under Marius at Aquæ Sextiæ (Aix in Provence) in B.C. 102; also in Spain as a 'tribunus militum' in 97; quæstor in 91; on the outbreak of the Civil war he opposed the party of the nobles, though not from any admiration of Marius, whose character he had ere this sounded. He commanded one of the four armies which besieged Rome under Marius and Cinna in 87, but was strongly opposed to their bloodthirsty methods. In 83 he went to Spain as prætor, and gained some successes against Sulla's supporters here and in Africa. At the invitation of the Lusitanians, he put himself at their head to resist Roman oppression, and became so powerful that he maintained a successful guerilla warfare for several years against Rome's best generals. In 79 he was master of most of Spain, and, having formed a league with the pirates, had command also of the sea. In 77 he was joined by Perpenna with the remnant of the army of Lepidus. He now posed as Roman governor of Spain, establishing a Senate of 300 members, to which no provincial was admitted, and opening schools for the education of Spanish children on Roman methods. In 76 Pompey was sent against Sertorius with an independent command, but in spite of a large army he failed signally to reduce him to subjection. Indeed, for the next five years both Pompey and Metellus were kept completely at bay, and things had assumed a very serious aspect for Rome owing to an alliance between Sertorius and Mithradates the Great, and the possibility of an invasion of Italy, when dissensions broke out in Spain, and Sertorius was murdered at a banquet by Perpenna and other Roman officers who had long been jealous of his authority, B.C. 72. On his death, Pompey found little difficulty in bringing the war to a close.

Spartacus, a Thracian gladiator, who in B.C. 73 broke out of a

school of gladiators at Capua with about 70 others, and took refuge in the crater of Vesuvius. Spartacus was chosen leader, and was soon joined by a large number of runaway slaves. They were blockaded by a Roman prætor, but put him to flight, and, as their numbers kept on increasing, were successful over one Roman army after another, laying the whole of Southern Italy waste. In 72 both consuls were defeated by Spartacus, but in 71 a vigorous campaign by M. Crassus, the prætor, led to the blockade of the rebels in Bruttium, and a decisive battle with them in which Spartacus was slain. Crassus, aided by Pompey, then finished the war. Roman writers have done scant justice to the character of Spartacus; accident made a gladiator of one whom nature intended for a hero. He had to use the tools at his disposal, and it is scarcely fair to blame him for the excesses of his motley following.

Sulla, L. Cornelius (Felix), the dictator, was born B.C. 138, of a patrician family: well educated, he displayed at an early age those great talents which were afterwards to lead to such great results; began his public career as quæstor to Marius in B.c. 107 in the war against Jugurtha, and it was mainly his tact and resolution which secured Jugurtha's capture, and an end of this tedious and discreditable struggle. He continued to serve for a while under Marius against the Teutones and Cimbri, but a jealousy was already beginning between them, and Sulla withdrew from his army. In 92 he was prætor in Cilicia, and was successful in checking the aggressions of Mithradates, restoring Ariobarzanes to the throne of Cappadocia from which he had been removed. Sulla's increasing reputation led the aristocrats to regard him as their champion; hence grew up a political animosity between Marius and Sulla, in addition to private hatred. Both were anxious to obtain the command against Mithradates; there was little doubt it would fall to Sulla owing to his previous exploits in the East; matters pointed to an open rupture when the outbreak of the Social war in 91 for a while gave both of them other employment. Even in this war Sulla was gaining fresh glory, e.q., by the capture of Bovianum, the Samnite capital, while Marius, now growing old, found himself proportionately sinking in popular estimation. In 88 Sulla was consul, and the Mithradatic command was intrusted to him; whereupon Marius, by means of a tribune of the people, P. Sulpicius Rufus, obtained a decree of the people investing him with supreme command against Mithradates. Civil war was now inevitable. Sulla returned and occupied Rome;

annulled the 'Leges Sulpiciæ,' and expelled Marius. restored order, Sulla left again for Greece in 87; no sooner was he gone than Marius and Cinna seized Rome and began a reign of terror. Sulla meantime had taken Athens, the headquarters of the Mithradatic cause in Greece, and defeated the united Pontic armies first at Chæronea in 86 and again at Orchomenus in 85; after driving the generals of Mithradates out of Greece he crossed the Hellespont, and concluded the war by a peace with Mithradates in 84; then after driving Fimbria, the Marian general sent out to supersede him, to despair and suicide, he returned to Italy, landing at Brundisium in 83 with five legions. The Marians were superior at first in point of numbers, but Sulla was joined by many of the nobility, notably by the young Cn. Pompeius, who raised three legions for him in Picenum. Marius had died in 86, but his son, consul in 82, held out in Præneste. Sulla, leaving the siege of this town to his lieutenants, hastily occupied Rome, and fought a great battle at the Colline Gate, almost annihilating the Samnites who had marched on Rome. This victory was followed by the surrender of Præneste and the suicide of the younger Marius, B.C. 82. Sulla now received supreme power as Dictator, and at once began a fearful proscription of his enemies and confiscation of their property. His dictatorship lasted from 81 to 79, and is memorable for the 'Leges Corneliæ,' or Sullan Constitution,—an attempt to restore, as far as possible, the ancient Roman Constitution, and to give back to the Senate and the aristocracy their lost powers; at the same time to deprive the tribunes of the people of all real power, and paralyse the action of the 'comitia tributa.' To establish his own power more securely he planted a large number of 'coloniæ militares' throughout Italy,-especially in Etruria, which had been a Marian stronghold; these colonies, consisting of his old soldiers, had, of course, the strongest interest in upholding his institutions, as any attempt to subvert these would invalidate their claim. Also he gave citizenship to some 10,000 slaves who were called 'Cornelii' after him, and in a sense served him as a body-guard. Having completed his reforms, he resigned the dictatorship and retired into private life, passing the short remainder of his days in literary and sensual enjoyment, dying in B.c. 78 at the age of 60.

Tiberius, Tiberius Claudius Nero Cæsar, Emperor A.D. 14-37, the son of Livia, and stepson of Augustus, by whom he was adopted

in A.D. 4; was employed by Augustus in various military commands together with his brother Drusus; thus in B.C. 20 he replaced Tigranes on the throne of Armenia; subdued the Rhæti, Vindelici. and Norici in 15; suppressed a revolt in Pannonia in 12, and conducted four campaigns there, 12-9; next fought in Germany, and received the submission of all the tribes between the Rhine and Elbe. In B.C. 6 he withdrew to Rhodes, remaining here in seclusion till A.D. 2, owing partly to the impossibility of living with his wife Julia, the Emperor's daughter, whom he had been forced by Augustus to marry, and partly to jealousy of the Emperor's grandsons L. Cæsar and C. Cæsar. On the death of the latter, and after the banishment of Julia, Tiberius returned, was adopted by Augustus in A.D. 4, and took command of the Roman armies, carrying on war successfully in Germany, Pannonia, and Dalmatia. On the death of Augustus in A.D. 14 Tiberius succeeded. His subsequent career is frequently described by those who rely too implicitly on the black picture drawn by Tacitus, as one systematic course of hypocrisy, cruelty, and bestial sensuality; but there is ample proof that this picture is grossly overdrawn, and that at the beginning of his reign, at any rate, Tiberius set himself to rule honestly and well, e.g., his provincial government was excellent; nor are there wanting instances where he displayed sound ideas of finance, and an impartial attitude in the administration of justice, worthy of the best rulers. There were many reasons for the deplorable change in his character later For example, his early education and imperious treatment by Augustus, who had roughly crushed his natural inclinations, making him divorce his own wife for Julia, and pass over his own son in favour of Germanicus; the uncertainty about the succession; then, again, the ceaseless quarrels and scandals in the palace after the return of Germanicus and Agrippina; the various rebellions in his reign; and, lastly, the horrible awakening when he found that he had been deceived throughout by the man he trusted, and that his son Drusus had been murdered by his favourite Sejanus. No wonder if the Emperor grew moody and suspicious, surrounded as he was with sycophants and informers ('delatores'), who were perpetually discovering treason ('læsa majestas') amongst his nearest friends. Disappointed and disgusted, he withdrew at last altogether to Capreæ A.D. 27, and made no further attempt to guide the reins of government, but left everything to Sejanus. To Sejanus were due, directly or indirectly, most of the horrors which followed: and it is a charitable and by no means improbable view to advance that the Emperor was mad during the latter part of his reign,—at least after discovering the real truth about the death of his son Drusus.

Trajan, M. Ulpius Trajanus, Roman Emperor, A.D. 98-117; a distinguished soldier, consul in 91; was adopted by the Emperor Nerva in 97; began his reign by a war against the Dacians, whom he defeated and compelled to sue for peace in 103. A second war against the Dacians ended in their defeat once more, and the death of their king Decebalus, 106. Dacia was then reduced to a Roman province. In 114 Trajan began his famous campaigns against the Armenians and Parthians; in the course of the years 115 and 116 he conquered the greater part of Parthia, and took the capital, Ctesiphon; in 116 he descended the Tigris and entered the Erythræan Sea (Persian Gulf). Meantime the Parthians again rose, but the generals of Trajan reduced them. In 117 Trajan fell ill, and died in Cilicia on the way home. A great soldier, and of simple habits, Trajan had the welfare of his people at heart; he constructed several great roads, built libraries and other public works, e.g., the Forum Trajanum in Rome, in the centre of which was placed the famous column of Trajan, a monument of his victories over the Dacians and Parthians.

Varro, M., the most voluminous and learned of Roman writers, was born B.C. 116; held a high naval command in the wars against the pirates and against Mithradates; was legatus to Pompey in the Civil war; present at Pompey's defeat at Pharsalus; pardoned by J. Cæsar, who employed him in superintending and arranging his great library; died in B.C. 28; is said to have composed 490 books on every variety of subject; of these only two are now extant, his treatises De Re Rustica and De Lingua Latina.

Vercingetorix, the chief of the Arverni, one of the greatest patriots of Gaul, carried on war ably against J. Cæsar in B.O. 52, at the head of a general revolt, but after the storming of Avaricum and Alesia he was obliged to surrender; was taken to Rome where, after figuring in Cæsar's triumph in 45, he was put to death.

Verres, C., the accepted type of all that was worst in the Roman provincial governor, became notorious through all time by his misgovernment of Sicily as proprætor, B.C. 73-71. It is said that his exactions, extortions, and enormities during these three years desolated the island more effectually than the two recent Servile wars,

or the old struggle between Rome and Carthage for possession of the island. On his retirement, the Sicilians appealed to Cicero to impeach Verres. This he did so ably that, though Verres was defended by the eloquent advocate Hortensius and all the corrupt aristocracy, the condemnation of the accused seemed so certain that Hortensius threw up the case and Verres fled from Rome. He was heavily fined, and withdrew in exile to Marseilles, being put to death by M. Antonius in the proscription of 43 for the sake of some of the numerous stolen art treasures which Verres still possessed.

Vespasian, T. Flavius Sabinus Vespasianus, rose from a humble position to be Roman Emperor, A.D. 70-79; after holding several posts he was sent in 43 to Britain, when he reduced Vectis (Isle of Wight): consul in 51, and proconsul in Africa under Nero: acquired a great military reputation; conducted the war against the Jews, 66-69, with great ability; was proclaimed Emperor by the armies of the East in 69; came to Rome in 70, leaving his son Titus to reduce Jerusalem; at once set to work to restore order; and by the simplicity of his life and purity of his example did much to improve the moral atmosphere of Rome; is accused of avarice and low tastes; still it is admitted, even by his detractors, that he was liberal in all his expenditure for purposes of public utility; the striking events of his reign are not numerous; Titus, his son, completed the conquest of the Jews by the capture of Jerusalem; Agricola, his general, subdued North Wales and the island of Anglesey. He left two sons, Titus and Domitian, both of whom succeeded to the throne.

Viriathus, a Lusitanian, who led his countrymen against the Romans, after the shameful and treacherous massacre perpetrated by the proconsul Galba in B.C. 150. Collecting a formidable force, he defeated several Roman armies, and so successful was his guerilla warfare that peace was concluded with him in 140 by another proconsul, but Roman treachery repudiated this peace shortly afterwards and procured the assassination of Viriathus by bribing some of his friends.

THE THREE COMITIA.

I. COMITIA CURIATA consisted of the members of the thirty 'curiæ' or parishes, that is, the patricians, who formed exclusively the 'populus' in early times. The votes were given by 'curiæ,' each 'curia' having one collective vote. It was called together by the king in the 'comitium,' when he chose, and could only determine such matters as he chose to submit to them, e.g., the conferring of 'imperium' on the king, the passing of laws, the declaration of peace and war, the capital punishment of Roman citizens. Most of these duties passed afterwards to the 'comitia centuriata,' and in Republican times the 'comitia curiata' was only held to confer 'imperium' on consuls and prætors, and to carry out certain formalities, e.g., in cases of adoption.

II. COMITIA CENTURIATA was an assembly held in the 'Campus Martius,' to which the people were summoned by 'classes' and 'centuriæ,' based on property qualifications. Wealth here had the preponderance of votes. Each century counted as one vote, so that a class had as many votes as it contained centuries; but the richest class had as many centuries as all the rest put together, and so could always outvote them. The 'comitia centuriata' elected the consuls, prætors, and censors, and for a long time decided on peace and war, a function afterwards assumed by the Senate. It had also rights of legislation, subject to the approval of the Senate. Further, a right of appeal to the 'comitia centuriata' from the sentence of the consul was established by several laws. Lastly, this assembly tried all cases of 'perduellio' and 'majestas,' i.e., all offences against the State; and no case involving the life of a Roman citizen could be decided by any other court.

III. COMITIA TRIBUTA grew out of the informal 'concilia plebis' held at first by the 'tribuni plebis.' By them the 'plebs' was invited to show its opinion by voting in tribes; later, after the Valerio-Horatian laws of 449 the 'comitia tributa' was summoned by consuls and prætors as well as by tribunes, and was openly recognised as a constitutional assembly for electing the tribunes, quæstors, ædiles, and minor officers, as well as for initiating certain legislation. In 287 the 'Lex Hortensia' made the 'plebicita' independent of the sanction of the Senate; they became laws binding on the whole

community. (N.B.—Most of the laws known to us are 'plebicita,')

The judicial power of this assembly was far more limited than that of the 'comitia centuriata,' inasmuch as they could take cognisance only of offences against the majesty of the people, while all crimes committed against the State were brought before the centuries.

The 'comitia tributa' might assemble either within or without the city, but not farther from it than 1000 paces, because the power of the tribunes did not extend further. The presidents were usually the tribunes, but as the 'comitia tributa' assumed more and more the character of a national assembly, the higher magistrates sometimes presided. It was determined by lot which of the thirty-five tribes should vote first, and this one was known as 'prærogativa tribus.' The announcing of the result of votes was 'renuntiatio.'

N.B.—Under Augustus the 'comitia' went through the form of sanctioning new laws and electing magistrates, but their proceedings were a farce, and no real power was left them.

CHIEF ROMAN MAGISTRATES.

CONSUL. After the expulsion of the kings, B.C. 509, two consuls were annually appointed, with full military and civil authority; their financial functions, however, passed in 435 to the censors, and their civil jurisdiction in 367 to the prætor, while their criminal jurisdiction was limited by the right of appeal ('provocatio'). They were elected, before their year of office began, by the comitia centuriata, and invested with their imperium by the comitia curiata some time after taking office. Their chief duties, after the institution of quæstors, censors, prætors, and ædiles, were (1) leading the armies, (2) conducting the chief elections, (3) presiding in the Senate and transmitting its orders.

N.B.—(i.) From B.O. 445-367 militum tribuni consulari potestate frequently were appointed instead; (ii.) opened to the 'plebs' in 367.

PRATOR. First appointed in 366; elected annually in the comitia

centuriata and invested with imperium by the comitia curiata; regulated legal procedure and expounded the law, generally appointing a jury ('judices') to try the facts of a case. At first only one; in 243 a second was appointed; 'prætor urbanus,' to try cases between Roman citizens; 'prætor peregrinus,' to superintend actions in which a foreigner was concerned. As the provinces were constituted, more prætors were appointed to govern them; e.g., two more in 227 for Sicily and Sardinia (with Corsica); two for the Spains; eight appointed by Sulla in 81; ten, fourteen, sixteen appointed by J. Cæsar.

Thrown open to the plebs in 337.

CENSOR. Instituted in 443; first plebeian censor in 351; two elected by the comitia centuriata every five years; held office for eighteen months. Chief duties were (1) to hold the 'lustrum,' assess, and arrange the citizens, (2) to prepare the list of the Senate, (3) to manage the finances of the republic, and give out public contracts for farming the taxes and executing great public works. They also had the power of inquiring into the conduct, private and public, of every citizen, and the right of affixing their 'nota' or stigma to his name; they could degrade a citizen from his tribe and deprive a knight of his horse,—for one 'lustrum' only.

N.B.—The reforms of Sulla in 81 provided for the appointment of senators without the aid of censors; the right of 'censure' was taken away from them by Clodius in 58; and the office was finally

absorbed by the Emperors.

ÆDILE. (i.) The plebeian ædiles were two annual officers appointed in 494, originally to assist the tribunes; they kept the 'plebiscita' in the temple of Ceres; assisted in the judicial work, and had special charge of all buildings; were elected by the 'comitia tributa.' (ii.) The curule ædiles, two annual magistrates, first appointed in 366, patricians; in 304 thrown open alternately to patricians or plebeians; kept the 'senatus-consulta' in the Temple of Saturn; superintended the public games; and, in conjunction with the plebeian ædiles, looked after the police of the city, roads, streets, public buildings, markets, etc. Two more were added in 44 by J. Cæsar to superintend the corn doles ('annona'). It was not necessary to hold this office in order to rise to the others, but it gave men an excellent chance of courting popularity by a lavish display of the public games.

QUASTOR. At first, 509, two annual magistrates to assist the

consuls; two main functions originally, viz., the preparation of the evidence in public prosecutions, and the management of the State accounts; opened to plebeians in 421; elected in the 'comitia tributa'; a quæstor accompanied the general to manage all finance, while others were attached to the governors of provinces; as the provinces increased in number, so did the quæstors; thus Sulla raised the number to twenty, while Cæsar had forty. The quæstors in Rome had charge of the Treasury ('ærarium'), and received or paid out all public money.

N.B.—Four 'quæstores classici' were appointed in 267 to look after the fleet.

TRIBUNE OF THE PLEBS.—Two annual officers first appointed in 494; not at first recognised as magistrates, but only protected by a religious sanction ('sacrosanctus'). They had not the 'imperium'; their powers were confined to the city limits; elected, after 471, by the 'comitia tributa'; all necessarily plebeians; their function to protect plebeians against patricians. Their chief powers and rights were—(1) 'auxilium,' power of protecting a citizen from the action of a magistrate; (2) 'intercessio,' right of putting a veto on the intended acts of all other magistrates, and even of one another; (3) presidency of the assembled 'plebs,' and right to put 'rogationes' to them, which, if accepted, become 'plebiscita' (=laws after 287); (4) the right to coerce and punish plebeians, subject to an appeal.

Their number eventually reached ten. They could summon the Senate, like other magistrates; and by 216 they had won the right to speak in it. By the 'Lex Hortensia' of 287 their 'plebiscita' were made binding on all citizens. In subsequent times they constituted themselves practically State prosecutors, and most of the laws bear their names.

N.B.—Sulla, in 81, degraded the Tribunate by taking from it its free initiative in legislation, and also by making it a bar to higher office; Pompey reinstated them; but they now so often caused a deadlock in public business that Augustus gathered up in his own person all their powers and privileges under the title 'tribunicia potestas.'

DICTATOR.—In times of great emergency an exceptional magistrate, called 'dictator,' was named by the Consul; he superseded all existing authorities; from him there was no appeal to the people; appointed for six months only, and for some definite object, and, as soon as this was achieved, he resigned; he could not leave Italy; he had no power over the Treasury.

Magister Equitum.—The dictator had to nominate a 'magister equitum' as his representative in case of absence; both received 'imperium' from the 'comitia curiata.'

N.B.—1st dictator in 501; opened to plebeians in 356; power of dictatorship broken in 217, when a 'magister equitum' was made equal in authority; in abeyance from 202 to 82 when Sulla revived it; but the dictatorships of Sulla and J. Cæsar are quite irregular and unconstitutional; abolished by Antony in 44.

PROCONSULS and PROPRÆTORS; the provincial governors from 133; no power whatever in the City; supreme military and judicial powers in the province; remained in office till a successor arrived. Under Sulla's constitution, the two consuls and eight prætors, after a year of office in Rome, became almost always proconsuls and proprætors in the provinces for a second year. Pompey's law, 'Lex Pompeia de jure magistratuum' required five years to elapse between holding office at home and in the provinces.

N.E.—(i.) All magistrates had 'potestas,' i.e., authority sufficient for the discharge of their duties, but 'imperium,' i.e., the right to command an army, was given only to consuls, prætors, and the dictator, with his magister equitum; this, of course, includes pro-

vincial governors.

(ii.) The 'Lex Villia Annalis' of 180 practically fixed the age for holding office and the order, by enacting that ten years' service should be a necessary qualification, with an interval of two years between each office; thus a man could first be quæstor at 28, ædile at 31, prætor at 34, consul at 37. This strict rule, however, was not always observed, and it seems that Sulla, to prevent further irregularities, ordained that a man could first be quæstor at 30, prætor at 40, consul at 43.

THE SENATE.

During the regal period, the Senate was an advising body of the elders ('patres'), with no active powers, the king consulting it on important matters, but not being bound to take its advice. Again, it lay with him to call it together, and only such matters as he propounded were open to discussion. Its members, too, were his

nominees. Similarly, under the Republic, the Senate still remains, in theory, merely an advising body, without any power of enforcing its opinions; and it was only at the invitation of the presiding magistrate that it could express an opinion ('senatusconsultum'): upon this opinion the magistrate could act or not, as he willed. In practice, however, the Senate gradually drew into its hands the whole administration of the State, encroaching steadily and almost unnoticed and without opposition on the powers alike of the magistrates and the people; and it is no exaggeration to say, that in its best days, i.e., during the period of the great wars, the Senate was the best representative and the chief cause of Rome's greatness. As the only body in which discussion was possible, it was inevitable that the Senate should prepare 'bills' (rogationes) for the 'comitia,' and discuss questions of foreign policy and diplomatic relations. Hence these came to be looked upon as special prerogatives of the Senate, though, in reality, they were usurped functions. Nor is it difficult to see how this naturally occurred. Two main reasons at once suggest themselves. In the first place, the collegiate principle of all the regular Roman magistracies left the State without a head: as long as the Senate could act as such, and make good its pretensions, the position was accepted by all classes. When at last it failed to do so, a new order of things was ushered in, and the rule of one man supported by an army was the result. In the second place, the magistrates were only annual, while the Senate was permanent and, after the passing of the Lex Ovinia, consisted almost entirely of ex-magistrates. Hence any new departure in policy could hardly be inaugurated, much less carried through by magistrates with such limited tenure of office. What more natural, then, that magistrates and people alike should come to rely almost implicitly upon the Senate's accumulated experience and official wisdom? Thus it was that it assisted the consuls in administering justice in early times, and, as Rome's military and diplomatic relations increased, took control of the finances; arranged what troops should be levied and to what destination they should be sent; guided the public expenditure, and, through certain of its members, e.a., the censors and ædiles, gave out the State contracts, and so became the chief employer of labour; framed 'rogationes' for the comitia centuriata, and gave to the votes of that assembly their final and necessary validity by its sanction ('auctoritas patrum'): further, it entirely managed provincial government; while, lastly,

a 'senatusconsultum,' if assented to by the tribunes who seldom refused, was virtually a law. With such gigantic powers, usurped as they were, it is easy to see what an influence the Senate could and did exert on the history of the nation, nor would it be hard to show how, with the fall of the Senate, from internal decay, corruption of manners, and loss of public spirit, the fall of the Republic was inevitably linked. As to the number of the Senate, it seems originally to have been 300, nominees of the king, all patricians; nor does there appear to have been any restriction placed on the king or afterwards on the early consuls in selecting its members; but when the censors had the power of revising the senatorial list ('album senatorum') transferred to them, they were directed to nominate exmagistrates first, and later on, (i.e. after reforms of Sulla), there was no need to go outside this class. The gradual opening of all offices to the plebeians carried with it admission to the Senate, the lowest office to give the right being the quæstorship; and, as by the 'Lex Villia Annalis' of 180 no man could hold office till he had served ten years, this would give the earliest age of admission as 28, (military service beginning at 17).

Sulla doubled the number of senators; and J. Cæsar, by admitting old soldiers, sons of freedmen, and noble provincials, raised it to 900, no doubt with an idea of making it more representative. Members were classified according to their past offices, e.g., 'con-

sulares, prætorii,' etc.

Any magistrate, except an ædile or quæstor, could summon the Senate and preside; it did not necessarily meet in the 'curia.'

N.B.—Under the Empire, the pretence of senatorial government was kept up by adhering to the old forms of procedure, but the whole body was completely subservient to the Emperor, who was himself 'princeps senatus.'

THE ROMAN ARMY.

I. The earliest Roman army (legio) consisted probably of 3000 milites and about 300 equites, together with light-armed troops (velites); all were citizens; phalanx formation.

II. Servius Tullius organised the army on a basis of landed property instead of citizen birth; he arranged five classes; the richest served as cavalry; the next richest as heavy infantry, and so on, the equipment becoming less and less; the poorest citizens (capite censi) only served in great emergencies, when they received equipment from the State. Military age between 17 and 46.

Phalanx formation, six files deep. Twelve centuries of cavalry,

now receiving money for expenses.

III. Changes attributed to Camillus—(1) payment of troops on service; (2) a new cavalry not chosen by wealth; (3) a sixth class of poorer citizens added; (4) a modification of the phalanx formation, details of which are not known, indicated by the names 'hastati, principes, triarii,' which appear in use in the next period, but with a meaning evidently not the original one.

IV. Period of the Great Latin War B.C. 337, fully described by Livy viii. 8. Army drawn up in 3 lines; first line (hastati) of 15 companies (manipuli) of youths; second line (principes) of men somewhat older; third line (triarii or pilani) of tried veterans; in this line the maniples were triple, 15 of 'triarii,' 15 of 'rorarii' or skirmishers, 15 of 'accensi' or supernumeraries.

Four such legions usually levied, two for each consul, about 4700 strong, with regular complement of 300 cavalry (justus equitatus).

V. Polybius (vi. 19-42) describes fully both army and camp in time of Scipio Æmilianus Africanus minor, i.e., B.C. 146.

Possibly this will hold good in the main for the period of the 2nd

Punic War, and also down to the time of Marius.

Legion of 4200 in 3 lines; first 2 lines in 10 maniples of 120 each, but the third line (triarii) in 10 maniples of only 60 each. A maniple contained 2 centuriæ, each under a centurio and his 'optio' or assistant. To each legion 1000 velites, and 300 cavalry in 10 troops (turmæ), subdivided into tens (decuriæ), each under a decurio. The maniples were said to be arranged in the 'quincunx'; the cavalry were on the wings.

VI. Changes introduced by C. Marius, B.C. 106-102; (1) opening of the army to all citizens, irrespective of property; (2) legion now divided into 10 cohortes (perhaps an earlier innovation); in all about

6000 men; all armed alike with the heavy javelin (pilum) and short sword (gladius); (3) old cavalry abolished; drawn henceforth from foreign nations, e.g., Gauls and Numidians; (4) the legion received a standard (aquila), and was distinguished by a number. It was now drawn up in 2 lines, each of 5 cohorts, with a space between; the veterans in front; (5) The velites disappear and foreign auxilia fill their place. (N.B.—This thoroughly efficient arrangement lasted till fall of Republic.)

VII. Under the Empire, the legions were mainly enlisted in the provinces, every soldier enlisting becoming thereby a Roman citizen. Augustus created 9 or 10 cohorts of prætorian guards of 1000 each, and 3 of urban guards. From his time dates the creation of a standing army. The cavalry was restored to the legion, and raised to 700; 25 legions on foot of about 6000 each; term of service for legionaries, 20 years; for auxilia, 25 years.

Socii.—Allies had to furnish the same amount of infantry, and twice (sometimes thrice) the cavalry; these were levied and paid by their respective states; officered by Romans (præfecti socium); posted on the wings, hence sometimes known as 'alæ.'

N.B.—No distinction after the 'Lex Plautia Papiria,' i.e., end of Social War B.c. 89, between the legions and socii; all possessing the full franchise were henceforth eligible for the legions. An army henceforth consisted of Romanse legions and auxilia, the latter comprehending troops of all kinds, except the legions.

Officers.—The chief officers of a legion, under a general cum imperio, i.e., an imperator, were the 6 tribuni militum, commanding in turn; next to them the 60 centuriones, each with an 'optio' under him; chief centurion was called centurio primi pili or primipilus.

Legati were staff-officers, nominated by the general with the sanction of the Senate; always men of approved ability, capable of

filling the general's place if necessary.

N.B.—The number of legions annually raised varied with the demands of the public service, as did also their strength at different periods. Two legions with their complement of 'socii' and 'auxilia' formed a regular consular army. Usually much larger; thus in 2nd Punic war 18, 20, 21, 23 were raised; and under the Empire, even more; Tiberius kept a standing army of 25 legions, besides 'auxilia' of about the same strength, as well as the prætorians.

The strength of a legion at the beginning of 2nd Punic war was about 4200, with 300 cavalry; by the time of Marius it had risen to 5200; after his time it varied from this number to 6200.

LIST OF MILITARY TERMS.

ala, (1) wing of an army, (2) cavalry of legion, (3) allied troops ('alarii').

antepilani, those in front of the triarii (i.e., the hastati and principes).

aquila, standard of the legion from the time of Marius.

auxilia, mercenaries, e.g., Balearic slingers, Gallic and Numidian horse, etc.

ballistæ, catapultæ, machinæ, scorpiones, tormenta, artillery.

calo, soldier's servant.

classiarii, marines,

commeatus, (1) commissariat, (2) furlough.

conquisitores, recruiting officers.

conscribo (also scribo), enrol.

cuniculi, mines, galleries.

decurio, subordinate officer in command of 10 troopers.

delectus, the levy.

emeriti, time-expired men.

evocati, veteran reserve (i.e., men who had served their full time, but who chose to serve on, with special pay and privileges).

exauctorati, (1) soldiers who, after serving 16 years, were retained for the further 4 years, under a standard of their own, with special exemptions and privileges; also known as vexillarii, (2) men who had been 'drummed out.'

excubiæ, sentinels posted along the rampart or 'vallum'; also 'custodes' at gates.

expediti, in light marching order; so cohors expedita, a flying column.

extraordinarii, a select body of $\frac{1}{5}$ the infantry and $\frac{1}{3}$ the cavalry of the allies, always in close attendance on the general.

ferentarii, rorarii, skirmishers, tirailleurs; the light-armed 'velites' acted in this capacity.

gregarius, rank and file.

impedimenta, heavy baggage of an army.

intervallum, a clear 200 feet which was left all round a Roman camp between the 'vallum' and the tents.

legatus, staff-officer, lieutenant-general. N.B.—Also=(1) ambassador, (2) Emperor's vicegerent in an imperial province.

lixa, sutler, camp-follower.

manipulus, a company of 60 rank and file.

missio, discharge.

musculus, pluteus, testudo, vinea, shelter, penthouse, mantlet (various kinds of protection for men approaching or working under fire).

nationes, battalions composed entirely of barbarians.

optio, assistant chosen by a centurio.

paludamentum, the general's cloak.

porta decumana, the main gate of a Roman camp, furthest from the enemy, so called because the tenth cohort of each legion was posted there, exactly opposite to the porta pratoria; a road connected these gates.

præfectus, officer of (1) cavalry, (2) allies.

prætorium, (1) general's quarters or tent, (2) council of war.

primipilus or centurio primi pili, senior centurion.

principia, a thoroughfare 100 feet broad across a Roman camp; along it were the officers' quarters; here stood the aquilæ, standards of the legions; here, too, the men were harangued; a gate at each end.

procinctus, cf. 'testamentum facere in procinctu,' to make a will on the battle-field.

quadratum agmen, an army marching in close fighting order. sacramentum, military oath of allegiance.

sagum, military cloak.

sarcinæ, soldiers' kits.

stationes, pickets thrown out in front of the camp. stipendium, pay; stipendia mereri or facere, to serve.

supplicatio, a day set apart for public prayer, either by way of thanksgiving for a victory, or by way of humiliation and entreaty after a defeat.

tessera, a tally of wood or metal on which the watchword or order for the day was inscribed and sent through the ranks.

tirones, recruits.

tumultuarii, irregulars, hastily raised levies.

turma, a squadron of 30 troopers.

vacationes, exemptions.

vallum, the stockade on the top of the 'agger' or rampart; the latter was formed of the soil dug from the 'fossa' which surrounded the camp.

vexillum, flag; vexillarius, ensign (also signifer).

vexillarii or vexilla, (1) any body of troops detached for particular duty; (2) (in special sense under the Empire) veterans retained under a flag of their own, with special privileges for the further 4 years of service after they had already served 16 (cf. exauctorati).

vigiles, the watch; vigilum cohortes, an armed night-patrol of 7 cohorts, instituted by Augustus, especially to guard against fire.

vitis, the centurion's badge of office; a vine cudgel, used for summary punishment.

volones, volunteer-slaves.

THE ROMAN NAVY.

The Romans appear to have first become aware of the importance of a fleet during the 2nd Samnite war, when in B.C. 311 'duumviri navales' were for the first time appointed. The ships then built were triremes, and this fleet, however insignificant, was probably kept up afterwards and formed a nucleus for further enlargements. In B.C. 260 the Senate, seeing that the war with Carthage could not be carried on adequately without a fleet, ordered the construction of one. A Punic quinquereme, wrecked on the Bruttian coast, served as a model; a fleet of 120 or 130 was built and equipped, and the Romans, under C. Duilius, won their first naval victory. From this time forward the Romans, though meeting with reverses through want of seamanship, continued to keep up a powerful navy, and it is clear that in the 2nd Punic war they had strong squadrons commanding both the Tyrrhene and the Adriatic seas.

Service in the fleet was not popular, and crews were chosen as a rule by the 'duumviri navales' from the freedmen of the colonists and allies, and also from those of the colonists and allies themselves who had been in slavery; they served longer and ranked lower than the land troops. The want of a good harbour on the coasts of the lower or Tyrrhene sea was met, when in B.C. 37 Vipsanius Agrippa formed the famous 'Portus Julius' out of the Lucrine and Avernus

lakes. Under Augustus, who greatly developed the navy, there were three fleets, one stationed at Ravenna to guard the Adriatic, one at Misenum to guard the western coast of Italy, the third at Forum Julii to guard the coast of Gallia Narbonensis and upper Italy; also minor flotillas were placed on the Rhine, Danube, and Euphrates, the great frontier rivers.

LIST OF NAVAL TERMS.

Naves mercatoriæ, onerariæ, 'merchantmen' (depending mainly on sails); naves bellicæ, longæ, rostratæ, aeratæ-'men of war'; naves actuariæ, 'fast-sailers' (using sails and oars); scapha, 'small boat,' carried by ships; linter, 'skiff,' 'wherry'; liburna, 'brigantine, light swift galley'; lembus, 'pinnace, cutter'; cercurus, 'a light swift sailer'; celoces, 'yachts, cutters'; navigia speculatoria, 'reconnoitring squadron'; alveus, 'the hull'; armamenta, 'the tackling'; carina, 'keel'; prora, 'prow'; puppis, 'stern'; alveus, 'hold'; saburra, 'ballast'; sentina, 'the well'; antlia, 'pump'; fori, 'gangways': transtra, 'cross planks, benches for rowers'; ancoræ, 'anchors'; ancoralia, 'cables'; retinacula, 'hawsers'; gubernaculum, 'rudder'; clavus, 'the tiller'; mali, 'masts'; antennæ, brachia, 'yards'; cornua, 'extremities of the yards'; vela, lintea, carbasa, 'sails'; funes, rudentes, 'rigging'; pedes, 'sheets'; remulcum, 'hawser for towing'; remi, 'oars'; scalmus, 'thole-pin'; aplustre, 'stern decoration'; rostrum, 'the metal beak, ram'; propugnacula, turres, 'elevated platforms' on the decks of war galleys; gubernator, 'pilot, steersman'; magister navis, 'captain of merchantman'; præfectus classis, 'admiral'; navis prætoria, 'admiral's ship'; navales socii, classici, 'crews of men-of-war'; classiarii, 'marines' corvi, manus ferreæ, harpagones, 'grappling-hooks'; carchesium, 'the maintop, look-out'; scalæ, 'ladders'; conti, 'punt poles'; navalia, 'docks'; ancoram jacere, 'to cast anchor'; ancoram solvere, tollere, 'to weigh anchor'; consistere ad ancoram, stare, expectare in ancoris, 'to ride at anchor'; moneris, biremis, triremis, quadriremis, quinqueremis, 'ships with 1,2,3,4,5 banks of oars respectively'; (N.B.-How these were arranged is not known; ancient writers mention ships of 10, 16, even 40 banks of oars); navis aperta, 'undecked'; navis constrata, 'decked vessel'.

COLONIES.

Roman colonies were not what in modern times would be understood by the word 'colony.' They were not planted in new countries by adventurers seeking new homes or new avenues of wealth. To begin with, all colonies, down to the time of Gaius Gracchus, were planted within the Italian peninsula. They were intended to keep a conquered people in check and also to repress hostile incursions. Cicero calls them 'propugnacula imperii.' Another object was to increase the power of Rome by increasing the population and spreading Roman ideas, laws, and language. Usually they were planted within the walls of ancient cities, part of the territory being seized and divided amongst the new settlers, whose duty it was to defend the place in Rome's interest. They were situated at every point of vantage throughout Italy, and were the chief means employed by Rome for keeping a tight hold on her conquests. Military roads connected them, and they in turn commanded these roads. Hence, in their origin, they were exclusively strategic.

They were of two kinds—(1) Colonies of Roman citizens, (2) Latin colonies. The first preserved all the rights of Roman citizens, while the second were without the 'jus suffragii' and the 'jus honorum,' and retained only the 'jus commercii' and occasionally the 'jus conubii.' Roman citizens who elected to join the latter kind, forfeited their civic rights but obtained a grant of land with the prospect of eminence in their new home. Of course they became liable to garrison-duty. Briefly, then, each colony was a miniature Rome set down as a fortress in an enemy's land, as Hannibal found to his cost in the 2nd Punic war.

The earliest colonies, e.g., Velitrae and Lavici, belonged to the first class, consisting exclusively of Roman citizens; so too the 'coloniae maritimae,' e.g., Ostia, Antium, Anxur, Minturnae, Sinuessa, and others, all of which had special privileges. Latin colonies, on the other hand, consisted of a mixture of Romans and members of some of the Latin States, e.g., Bononia. It would seem that the old inhabitants were at first regarded as holding an inferior position to the new 'coloni,' though doubtless in time the two amalgamated.

After the Social War and the passing of the 'Lex Julia' and 'Lex Plautia Papiria,' the distinctions between the two classes

of colonies, as well as any remaining inequalities, social and political, came to an end in Italy, all being now full Roman citizens, B.C. 89. Sulla introduced a new kind of colony for the purpose of providing for veteran soldiers. These were the 'coloniae militares,' a very dangerous development, attended with much misery and oppression of the rightful possessors.

By degrees colonisation extended to the provinces, e.g., Aquae Sextiae (Aix) in Southern Gaul B.C. 122; Narbo (Narbonne) further west in Gaul B.C. 118. The first colony outside the Italian peninsula was proposed by C. Gracchus. This was Junonia, on the site of Carthage B.C. 123; the object of Gracchus' colonisation, however, was different from the old system; he wished to relieve distress by providing new homes for the poor. His scheme was a failure. After the accession of Augustus, military colonies were planted in the provinces as a matter of necessity, and not infrequently on the disturbed frontiers as a matter of policy.

N.B.—Chief dates of colonies in Italy B.C. 313, 303, 266, 194, 183. (Aquileia, the last Latin colony in Italy, to command the Northern Adriatic.)

CHIEF ROMAN ROADS IN ITALY.

I. The Via Appia,—(cf., Horace's 'Journey to Brundisium,' Satires, i. 5),—the great southern road, issued from the Porta Capena, and passed through Aricia, Tres Tabernae, Appii Forum, Tarracina, Fundi, Formiae, Minturnae, Sinuessa, and Casilinum; it originally ended at Capua, but was afterwards continued through Calatia and Caudium to Beneventum, and finally thence through Venusia, Tarentum, and Uria to Brundisium. First section built by Appius Claudius Caecus the censor in B.C. 312.

II. THE VIA LATINA, also issuing from the Porta Capena, ran parallel to the Appia, but farther inland, and after passing through Ferentinum, Aquinum, Casinum, and Venafrum, joined the Via Appia at Beneventum.

III. THE VIA FLAMINIA, the great north road, issuing from the Porta Carmentalis or the Porta Flaminia, ran north to Narnia in Umbria, and sending out numerous branches to Ancona, Ariminum,

and other important towns on the east coast, formed the main line of communication with Hither Gaul, and so with the provinces beyond the Alps. From Ariminum, the extension was known as the Via Æmilia. Bononia, Mutina, Parma, Placentia lay on this route; it crossed the Padus (Po) and so to Mediolanum (Milan).

IV. VIA AURELIA, the great coast road, followed the line of the coast along Etruria and Liguria, through Genua (Genoa), and so to Forum Julii (Frejus) in Gaul.

(Less important are—(1) Via Praenestina, originally Via Gabina, through Gabii to Praeneste; there it joined the Via Latina. (2) Via Tiburtina to Tibur (Tivoli); thence as Via Valeria through the Sabine country northward, through Corfinium to Adria on the Upper Sea. (3) Via Salaria, through Fidenae, ran north and east through the Sabine country, through Reate and Asculum to Ancona. (4) Via Cassia, branching off from the Via Flaminia, traversed central Etruria.)

N.B.—All these were originally military roads, built to secure safe communication between the city and the legions. They date from the Samnite wars, the earliest being the Via Appia, B.C. 312. All were secured by military posts (colonies) along the route. It was the duty of the censors to see that they were kept up; under the Empire special officers called curatores viarum were appointed. C. Gracchus erected milestones all along the great highways, while Augustus erected in the forum a gilded column ('milliarium aureum') with the distances of the principal places to which each led. Similar roads were built in the provinces, e.g., the Via Egnatia, the great high road to the east, starting at Dyrrhachium, right across northern Greece, through Thrace, to Byzantium.

SECESSIONS OF THE PLEBS AND THEIR RESULTS.

B.C. 494. First secession to the Mons sacer, led to the establishment of the Tribunate, a body of magistrates chosen by the plebs to safeguard plebeian interests.

B.C. 449. Second secession resulted in the Valerio-Horatian laws, which gave to 'plebiscita' the force of laws.

B.O. 287. Third and last secession resulted in the Lex Hortensia, a confirmation of the Lex Valeria, finally establishing the legislative power of the tribe-assembly of the plebs.

THE TRIBUNATE; ITS ORIGIN AND FUNCTIONS.

In B.c. 494 the plebeians, impoverished by long wars, and cruelly oppressed by the patricians, seceded in a body to the Mons Sacer. Their worst grievance was the law of debt, and hitherto they had found no protection against the arbitrary behaviour of their patrician creditors. Under a threat of leaving Rome altogether, the plebeians forced the patricians to come to terms. First, it was agreed that debts should be cancelled and imprisoned debtors set free; and, secondly, two tribuni plebis were elected. The plebeians, it was enacted, were to meet once every year in an assembly of their own, and elect from their own body two tribunes to protect their persons and their interests. These tribunes, who soon were raised to five and in 457 to ten, had not the imperium, like the consuls, but they had the following powers:-(1) auxilium, the power of protecting a citizen from the action of a magistrate; (2) intercessio, the right of vetoing a magisterial decree, a 'rogatio,' or a 'senatusconsultum'; (3) the presidency of the assembled plebs, and the right to put 'rogationes' to them, which, if accepted, became 'plebiscita,' binding originally on the plebs only; (4) power to coerce and punish offenders against the plebs, subject to an appeal to that body.

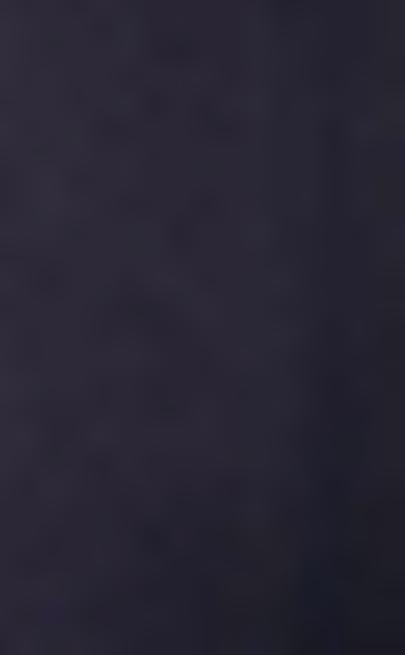
Tribunes were elected for one year; their persons were 'sacrosancti,' inviolable and consecrated; the veto of one was as final as the veto of all; none but plebeians were eligible; their power did not extend more than one mile beyond the city gates, nor could they be absent from Rome for a whole day except during the 'Ferize Latinze,' when the whole people assembled on the Alban Mount.

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THE DECEMVIRATE.

Though the plebeians had gained much by the establishment of the Tribunate in B.C. 494 as a result of their first secession, still the laws remained unwritten, and, being only preserved by oral tradition among the patrician families and priestly officials, there was no sufficient check on the consul in his judicial functions. Persistent agitation for a written code led in 462 to a proposal by C. Terentilius, a tribune, that a commission of five should be appointed to frame such a code. The Senate continued its policy of opposition, but the plebeians persisted, and, after gaining some advantages, such as the increase of the tribunate from five to ten, and the distribution of land on the Aventine to the poor plebeians, they at last forced the Senate to send envoys to Greece to study the Greek codes. On their return the following agreement was made between the two orders, B.C. 452. Ten commissioners ('Decemviri legibus scribendis') were to be chosen from both patricians and plebeians, for the purpose of framing a code of laws. They were intrusted with supreme power in the State, and all the other magistracies were suspended; they were to hold office for one year. Accordingly, in 451 they entered office, drew up a code of ten sections, and had it engraved on metal and set up in the comitium. On the expiration of their year of office, all parties were so well satisfied with their performance of their duties that it was resolved to continue the same form of government for another year. In 450 two more sections, thus making up 'the XII. Tables,' were added by a new body of Decemviri, of whom five were now plebeian. According to popular tradition, as gathered up in the pages of Livy, this second Decemvirate acted in a most tyrannical manner, making common cause with the patricians and committing all sorts of outrages on life and property. At the end of their year of office they attempted, under the leadership of Appius Claudius, to remain in power. This led to an insurrection and the second secession of the plebs in 449 to the Mons Sacer. Their demands for the restoration of the tribunate and the right of appeal ('provocatio') were accepted by the Senate. The Decemviri were compelled to resign, and the old magistracies were re-established. The truth, however, about Appius Claudius, whose action has been gravely misrepresented by Livy,

would seem to be that he became the popular champion, insisting on the election of plebeians, and then attempting to improve the plebeian status by means of a majority thus obtained. Patrician opposition was met by him with a refusal to resign, so long as his demands remained unratified. If this be the true view, Appius should be regarded as the leader of the party of compromise, which wished to reconcile the rival factions. Whatever are the details of the history of the Decemvirate, it is clear that the XII. Tables originated thus, and that they formed the basis of all Roman law, and were the only attempt at codification for nearly 1000 years, until the time, that is, of Justinian, A.D. 528.

ROMAN LAW.

I. Sources of Law: (1) the XII. Tables, B.C. 450, a code of twelve statutes, the great charter of Roman liberties, and the basis of all future attempts at law-making.

(2) senatus-consulta, if accepted, became laws.

(3) decisions of the comitia centuriata, if they received the senate's sanction ('auctoritas patrum'), were laws.

(4) decisions of the comitia tributa ('plebiscita') were laws bind-

ing on the whole community after the Lex Hortensia of 287.

(5) edicts of the magistrates, published on assuming office (especially of the prætor urbanus), were laws during their year of office, and often remained in force much longer.

N.B.—Under the Empire, when the popular assemblies were virtually suppressed, the Emperor became the chief source of all law, his decrees having legal force: (1) edicta, either new laws or modifications of existing laws; (2) mandata, instructions to magistrates and officials; (3) rescripta, answers to these when they applied for advice; (4) decreta, his decisions on doubtful points.

II. THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE LAWS.—All judicial proceedings were 'judicia,' subdivided into 'judicia publica,' i.e., criminal trials, and 'judicia privata,' i.e., civil suits.

(a) In the earliest times the king was judge in all trials; subse-

quently the consuls, and from 367 till the fall of the Republic the 'prætor urbanus' and 'prætor peregrinus' presided in the civil courts. Except, however, in very simple cases, which could be at once decided, the prætor appointed one or more umpires ('judex') to inquire into the case and pronounce judgment. Carefully worded instructions, adapted to the circumstances of the case, were given by the prætor to the 'judex.' These are known as 'formulæ.' By Cicero's time these 'formulæ' had increased to such an extent that provision had been made practically for every possible contingency. The proceedings before the prætor were said to be 'in jure'; those before the judex, 'in judicio.'

(b) Criminal jurisdiction.—On the expulsion of the kings, their judicial powers passed to the consuls, who jointly exercised the power of life and death. This excessive power was greatly limited by the 'jus provocationis' ('right of appeal'). In times of great public danger, the Senate, in conjunction with the consuls, assumed the right of adopting whatever measures they thought necessary, and even of inflicting summary punishment, e.g., in the proceedings against the Gracchi and Catilinarian conspirators. The formula then used by the Senate was: "Videant consules, ne quid respublica

detrimenti capiat."

The Comitia Centuriata also possessed the right of acting as a supreme court in all criminal cases affecting Roman citizens, but the inconvenience of a popular assembly examining into the details of a complicated charge led them to delegate their authority to 'quæsitores' or 'quæstores'; hence the trial was a 'quæstio'. The great majority of criminal trials were so conducted. As the number of offences increased, the plan of appointing a special commission to try each cause became most inconvenient, and Sulla, by extending the system of 'questiones perpetue,' superseded to a great extent the jurisdiction of all other courts in criminal prosecutions. Each of these 'quæstiones perpetuæ' took cognisance of one class of offences only, e.g., one was occupied exclusively with cases connected with the misgovernment or oppression of the provincials ('de repetundis'); another with embezzlement of public money ('de peculatu'); a third with bribery at elections ('de ambitu'); a fourth with high treason ('de majestate'), and so on.

In every such case, a judge ('quasitor') presided and regulated proceedings, while a jury ('judices'), after hearing the pleadings and evidence, pronounced upon the guilt or innocence of the accused.

N.B.—'judices' in this sense strictly = jurors; whereas 'judex,' in civil suits = umpire or arbiter,

III. Some technical legal terms.

postulatio,—application to the 'judex quæstionis' for leave to prefer an accusation,

divinatio,—the preliminary process to decide which of the applicants, supposing several applied, had the best claim to conduct the prosecution.

deferre nomen or crimen,—formally declaring the name of the person to be impeached, and of the charge against him,

reus,—the accused. (N.B.—He is now legally disqualified from

becoming a candidate for any public office; cf. Catiline's case in 65.) judicum rejectio,—challenge and rejection of a certain number of jurors by both parties.

testimonia, -different kinds of evidence.

denuntiatio,—compelling a person to appear as witness. (Only the accuser had this right.)

ampliatio,—fixing of a day by the judge for a further hearing, when fuller investigation seemed desirable.

comperendinatio,—suspension of proceedings until the next day but one, when the 'actio secunda' took place and the jury were obliged to convict or acquit.

perduellio,—hostility to one's native country; high treason. (N.B.—Trials for 'perduellio' took place before the comitia.)

majestas,—any procedure on the part of a Roman citizen, by which the power or dignity of the Roman people was impaired or degraded.

vis,—(as a legal term) the organising and arming of tumultuous bodies of men for the purpose of obstructing the constituted authorities in the performance of their duty, and thus interrupting the ordinary administration of the laws.

incendium,-arson.

parricidium,—not only the murder of a parent, but also the wilful malicious murder of any free citizen; a person guilty of high treason or even sacrilege was called 'parricida.' (N.B.—An unsuccessful attempt was visited with the same severity as a completed crime.)

repetundæres or pecuniæ,—a charge of extortion preferred against a Roman provincial governor; subsequently used of any act of misgovernment or oppression on his part. falsum,—forgery—(1) tampering with wills, (2) coining base money, (3) bearing false witness and corrupting witnesses.

peculatus,—embezzlement of public property. (N.B.—furtum,—theft from an individual.)

ambitus,—bribery by a candidate for public office.

causidici,-pleaders, 'the Bar.'

patronus,- 'counsel.

jurisconsultus,-legal adviser; also advocatus.

tergiversatio,—the corrupt abandoning of the accusation by the accuser.

prævaricatio,—conducting a case in such a way as to secure the acquittal of the accused; collusion with the other side, from corrupt motives, e.g., by passing over serious charges, neglecting to call important witnesses, etc.

calumnia,—any fraud or treachery, on the part of one engaged in conducting a criminal trial; especially the crime of wilfully preferring a false accusation.

IMPORTANT LAWS.

B.C.

449. Valerio-Horatian laws (2nd secession of the plebs)-

(1) 'plebiscita' to have the force of law.

(2) no magistracy henceforth to be raised above the right of appeal.

N.B.—This law was further confirmed by the Lex Publilia of 339, and finally by the Lex Hortensia of 287.

445. Lex Canuleia-

(1) Marriage between patricians and plebeians legalised.

(2) Consulship opened to the plebs. N.B.—The patricians evaded this by appointing three military tribunes with consular power instead of consuls, and by appointing two censors to whom some of the most important duties of the consuls were transferred.

367. Licinian Rogations-

 Relief of debtors by deducting from the capital the interest already paid, and arranging for payment by instalments.

- (2) No citizen to occupy more than 500 jugera of public land, or to keep more than 100 oxen and 500 sheep on the public pastures.
- (3) Landlords to employ a certain proportion of free labourers.
- (4) Restoration of the consulship; one consul must be a plebeian,
- 300. Lex Ogulnia opens the religious 'collegia' to the plebs.
- 287. Lex Hortensia—The resolutions of the tribes to be binding on the whole community.
- 218. Lex Claudia forbids a senator to engage in the shipping trade.
 N.B.—Separation of the 'senatorius ordo' from the capitalist and commercial classes, i.e., the 'equites' of later times.
- 180. Lex Villia Annalis enacted that ten campaigns were necessary to render a candidate for office eligible, and also fixed the order of holding the different magistracies, with an interval of two years between each; for holding the various magistracies the earliest ages then will be: quæstor at 28, ædile at 31, prætor at 34, consul at 37. N.B.—Age raised by Sulla—quæstor at 30; prætor at 40; consul at 40 (the ædileship might be omitted).
- 149. Lex Calpurnia de pecuniis repetundis—first standing commission (' quæstio perpetua') for trial of criminal offences.
- 133. Leges Semproniæ (Tiberius Gracchus)—agrarian legislation—
 - To enforce the Licinian limit of 500 jugera for every citizen, with 250 extra for each son.
 - (2) A land distribution.
 - (3) A commission of three to carry out the scheme.
 - N.B.—Tiberius Gracchus also claimed for the people the right of disposing of the riches of Attalus; he proposed to apply it to stocking the new farms of the poorer occupants. (N.B.—First serious attack on supposed senatorial rights.)
- 123. Leges Semproniæ (Gaius Gracchus)-
 - (1) Corn to be supplied by the State monthly at half-price to all citizens.
- I. Social and Economical. (2) Renewal of the law of Tiberius; not however enforced.
 - (3) Colonies to be established at Tarentum and elsewhere in Italy, besides one at Carthage (Junonia) to include poor Italians,

II. Military. { (4) 'Provocatio' extended to the citizen on service; years of service shortened; free clothing to be supplied by the State.

- (5) Fresh 'quæstiones perpetuæ' to be established.
 (6) Jurors in these courts to be 'equites.' N.B.—
 Creation of 'Equester ordo.'
 (7) A law declaring the sole right of the people to

IV. Provincial government.

(8) The taxes of Asia to be put up for auction at Rome, not collected by the provincials.

(9) The Senate to decide, before the election of consuls for any year, what provinces the second sec assigned to them.

B.C.

- 90. Lex Julia; grant of 'civitas' to all Italian states not in rebel-
- 89. Lex Plautia Papiria; all Italians admitted to the franchise on application to the prætor within 60 days. (N.B.—End of Social War; all Italian towns soon acquire citizenship.)
- 81. Leges Corneliæ (of Sulla). (N.B.—A complete refashioning of the Constitution.)
 - (1) Punishment of revolted cities by confiscation, disfranchisement, and the planting of 'coloniæ militares' on their territory.
 - (2) The goods of the proscribed are sold, and their children are excluded from the magistracies.
 - (3) Right of the 'comitia tributa' to make laws abolished; this right now confined to the 'comitia centuriata,' subject to the approval of the Senate.
 - (4) The tribunate made a bar to holding higher office.
 - (5) The 'judices' to be drawn from the Senators alone.
 - (6) No provincial governor in future was to wage war out of his own province, to keep his post after the appointment of a successor, or act in any way independently of the Senate, under penalty of treason.
 - (7) Creation of nine permanent courts ('quæstiones perpetuæ') for dealing with the principal criminal charges; prætors increased to eight.
 - N.B.—I. The above are some only of the main details of Sulla's Constitution. Its two ideas were (1) the suprem-

acy of the Senate at the expense of the 'equites' and

people; (2) the consolidation of Italy.

II. The Sullan Constitution was actually overthrown in 70 by Pompey supported by his army; but its speedy downfall was inevitable for several reasons—(1) its artificiality; an attempt to substitute a brand new constitution in the place of a growth of centuries; too mechanical to live; (2) the instruments employed, viz., the Army and the Dictatorship, were violent and unstatesmanlike; (3) it was entirely in the interest of one party, all others being for the time crushed and silenced; it took no notice of the whole community as such; (4) it overlooked the burning questions of the day, and so was incomplete, e.g., Sulla left three wars ready to break out at any moment, viz., Sertorius in Spain; Mithradates in Asia; Spartacus in Italy.

Hence his constitutional efforts created no confidence, and his reckless methods brought revolution nearer.

67. Lex Gabinia confers on Pompey supreme command for three years for the war against the pirates, with control of the coasts, and 25 legati; (proposed by a tribune, and carried in the teeth of the Senate).

66. Lex Manilia gives Pompey the command against Mithradates with extraordinary powers; (also proposed by a tribune in opposition to the optimates).

58. Leges Clodiæ (P. Clodius, tribune) :-

(1) Free distribution of corn.

(2) All religious checks on legislation removed.

(3) A law inflicting banishment on any one who had executed a citizen without trial. (N.B.—Aimed at Cicero.)

52. Lex Pompeia de jure magistratuum :-

(1) Candidates for office must appear in Rome.

(2) Consuls and prætors to receive provinces, not immediately after office at home, but after a lapse of five years.

CHIEF ROMAN BATTLES AND SIEGES, DOWN TO A.D. 116.

- 496. B.C. Lake Regillus, in Latium; Roman victory over the Latins.
- 396. Conquest of Veii, in Etruria; defeat of Etruscans by M. Furius Camillus,
- 390. Allia, a small river six miles from Rome; capture and burning of Rome by the Gauls.
- 343. Gaurus, mountain in Campania near Puteoli; defeat of the Samnites by Valerius Corvus.
- 340. Veseris, site unknown, perhaps on slopes of Mt. Vesuvius; defeat of Latins and Campanians by P. Decius Mus.
- 321. Caudine Forks, a narrow pass in Samnium; Roman army sent under the yoke by Gaius Pontius, the Samnite general.
- 310. Vadimo, a small lake in Etruria; great Roman victory over Etruscans.
- 295. Sentinum, a town in Umbria; defeat of Samnites, Umbrians, and Gauls.
- 283. Vadimo, a small lake in Etruria; defeat of Boii and Etruscans.
- 280. Heraclea, a town in Lucania; defeat of Romans by Pyrrhus of Epirus.
- 279. Asculum, a town in Apulia; defeat of Romans by Pyrrhus.
- 275. Beneventum, in Samnium on Via Appia; victory of M'. Curius Dentatus over Pyrrhus.
- 260. Myls, a town on the N.E. coast of Sicily; naval victory of C. Duilius over the Carthaginians,
- 256. Ecnomus, on S.W. coast of Sicily; Roman naval victory over Carthaginians.
- 255. Hermean Cape (Cape Bon), extreme N.E. point of Punic territory in Africa; Roman naval victory over Carthaginians.
- 250. Panormus (Palermo), on N. coast of Sicily; Roman victory over Carthaginians; capture of 120 elephants.
- 249. Drepanum or -a, seaport at N.W. corner of Sicily; only great naval victory of the Carthaginians over the Romans.
- 242. Ægates Insulæ, three small islands off W. coast of Sicily; Roman naval victory over Carthage (end of 1st Punic war).
- 219. Saguntum, in Spain, a little south of the Ebro; besieged and destroyed by Hannibal (immediate cause of 2nd Punic war).

- 218. Ticinus, a river in Gallia Cisalpina, falling into the Po; first victory of Hannibal over the Romans.
- " Trebia, a small river in Gallia Cisalpina, near Placentia; defeat of both consuls by Hannibal.
- 217. Trasimene (Lago di Perugia), a lake in Etruria; defeat of the consul, C. Flaminius, by Hannibal.
- 216. Cannæ, a village in Apulia, near the river Aufidus; both consuls hopelessly defeated by Hannibal.
- 207. Metaurus, a small river in Umbria, on the banks of which, near Sena Gallica, Hasdrubal was crushed by C. Claudius Nero and M. Livius Salinator.
- 202. Zama, a city in central Numidia near river Bagradas; defeat of Hannibal by Scipio Africanus major (end of 2nd Punic war).
- 197. Cynoscephalæ, two hills near Scotussa in Thessaly; defeat of Philip king of Macedonia by Flamininus (crisis in 2nd Macedonian war).
- 191. Thermopylæ, a pass between Thessaly and Locris; defeat of Antiochus, king of Syria, by M'. Glabrio and Cato the elder.
- 190. Myonnesus, a promontory of Ionia, N. of Ephesus; Roman victory over the fleet of Antiochus.
 - " Magnesia, a city in N.W. Lydia, at foot of Mt. Sipylus; defeat of Antiochus by Scipio Asiaticus aided by Scipio Africanus.
- 168. Pydna, in Macedonia, a little W. of Thermaic gulf; defeat of Perseus by L. Æmilius Paulus (end of 3rd Macedonian war).
- 146. Capture and destruction of Carthage by Scipio Æmilianus Africanus minor (end of 3rd Punic war).
 - " Destruction of Corinth by L. Mummius (end of Achean League).
- 133. Capture and destruction of Numantia, in N. central Spain, by Scipio Æmilianus Africanus minor (end of resistance to Rome in Spain).
- Muthul, a river in Numidia; defeat of Jugurtha by Q. Metellus,
- 105. Arausio (Orange), on the Rhone, in Gallia Narbonensis; defeat of Romans by the Cimbri (80,000 killed).
- 102. Aquae Sextiae (Aix), in Gallia Narbonensis; defeat of the Tentones by C. Marius.
- 101. Vercellae, or the Raudine Plain, in Gallia Cisalpina; annihilation of the Cimbri by Marius and Catulus.

- 86. Chaeronea, in Bœotia, on the Cephisus; victory of Sulla over the united Pontic armies under generals of Mithradates.
- Orchomenus, in Bœotia, N.W. of lake Copais; victory of Sulla over armies of Mithradates.
- 82. Porta Collina, the northern gate of Rome, outside which Sulla and M. Crassus defeated 40,000 Samnites, after desperate fighting.
- 69. Tigranocerta, in Armenia; siege and capture by Lucullus.
- 67. Ziela or Zela, in S. Pontus; defeat of Valerius Triarius by Mithradates.
- 62. Pistoria, a small place in Etruria; defeat and death of Catiline.
- 58. Bibracte (Autun), chief town of the Ædui in Gaul; siege and capture by J. Cæsar.
- 53. Carrae (Haran), a city in Mesopotamia; defeat and death of M. Crassus by the Parthians.
- 52. Avaricum (Bourges), capital of the Bituriges in Gaul; siege and capture by J. Cæsar.
- " Gergovia, capital of the Arverni in Gaul; besieged by Cæsar, but not captured.
- " Alesia (Alise), capital of the Mandubii in Gaul; besieged and destroyed by Cæsar.
- Uxellodunum (near Cahors), capital of the Cadurci in Gaul;
 besieged and captured by Cæsar.
- 48. Pharsalus, a town in Thessaly, W. of the Enipeus; defeat of Pompey by Cæsar.
- 47. Ziela or Zela, a city in S. Pontus; defeat of Pharnaces by Cæsar ("veni, vidi, vici").
- 46. Thapsus, a city on E. coast of the old province of Africa; defeat of Pompeians by Cæsar.
- 45. Munda, a town in Hispania Baetica; victory of Cæsar over Pompeians.
- 43. Mutina (Modena), a town in Gallia Cispadana; besieged by M. Antonius, relieved by Hirtius and Pansa, consuls.
- 42. Philippi, on Mt. Pangaeus in Macedonia; defeat of republicans under Brutus and Cassius by Antony and Octavian.
- 36. Naulochus, near Mylae on N.E. coast of Sicily; defeat of Sextus Pompeius by Vipsanius Agrippa.
- 31. Actium, promontory in Acarnania; victory of Octavian over Antony and Cleopatra.
- 9. A.D. Clades Variana in the Teutoberg Forest between Osnabrück

and Paderborn, Germany; Arminius cut three Roman legions under Varus to pieces.

61. Camalodunum (Colchester), capital of the Trinobantes in Britain; defeat of Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, by Suetonius Paulinus.

69. Bedriacum, between Cremona and Verona; defeat of Otho by Caecina the general of Vitellius, and then of the Vitellian troops by Vespasian.

70. Destruction of Jerusalem by Titus after a long and stubborn

116. Ctesiphon, capital of the Parthians, three miles from Seleucia, in Assyria, on E. bank of the Tigris; siege and capture by the Emperor Trajan (Roman Empire at its greatest extent).

THE ROMAN PROVINCES ;—WHEN AND HOW FORMED.

B.C.

240. Sicily, after 1st Punic war. (N.B.—Syracusan kingdom, at first independent under Hiero, was merged in Sicily in 201.)

231. Sardinia and Corsica, united as one province. Romans had treacherously occupied Sardinia in 238.)

197. Hispania citerior Hispania ulterior result of 2nd Punic war.

N.B.—Three divisions in time of Augustus \ Lusitania,

146. Macedonia, to which Achaia was added.

Perseus, the last king of Macedon, was defeated in 168 at Pydna; the Achæan League was broken up, 145.

N.B.—Thrace, eventually a province (date unknown), was also governed from Macedonia.

146. Africa, i.e., the Punic possessions only. (3rd Punic war.)

133-129. Asia, i.e., the kingdom of Attalus, king of Pergamus, bequeathed to Rome in 133; finally became a province after the defeat of the pretender, Aristonicus.

121-118. Gallia Narbonensis ('the Province'); conquest of S. Gaul in 121 after defeat of Allobroges and Arverni; colony planted at Narbo in 118. (N.B.-J. Cæsar, 58-51, effected the complete conquest of Northern Gaul, but it remained attached for the present to Gallia Narbonensis.)

 Gallia Cisalpina, formed into a province by Sulla. Illyricum or Dalmatia was afterwards added by Augustus.

N.B.—Gallia Cisalpina is included in Italy after 43.

74. Bithynia, bequeathed by king Nicomedes to Rome in 75.

Pontus was added to it after death of Mithradates in 63.

Cyrene and Crete; the former had been bequeathed to Rome in 96 by king Ptolemy.

66. Cilicia, perhaps a province earlier, was now settled by Pompey.

Cyprus, annexed by Cato, was added to Cilicia in 58.

- 64. Syria, after the deposition of Antiochus by Pompey. Judæa was added to Syria in 63 by Pompey on the fall of the Maccabees.
- 58-51. Gallia Transalpina, three provinces besides Narbonensis; result of J. Cæsar's campaigns, but became separate provinces only in A.D. 17; viz., Aquitanica, Lugdunensis, Belgica.

N.B.—Upper and Lower Germany were non-territorial provinces, their purpose being to maintain the Rhine frontier against the German tribes on the eastern bank.

46. Numidia, after defeat of king Juba by J. Cæsar at battle of Thapsus, was united with the old province of Africa.

- 30. Egypt, after battle of Actium in 31, was put under a prefect and always kept in the Emperor's hands, from dread of a rival empire.
- 29. Mœsia after conquest of Daci, Bastarnae, and Getae.
- 25. Galatia and Pamphylia; Paphlagonia soon added.
- 15. Rhaetia and Noricum, after campaigns of Tiberius and Drusus.

A.D.

- Pannonia; and Dalmatia or Illyricum probably about the same time; result of campaigns of Tiberius.
- 17. Cappadocia, on death of Archelaus, the last king.
- Mauretania; two parts, Tingitana and Cæsariensis; reign of Claudius.
- 44. Britain, i.e., south of the Thames; reign of Claudius.
- 44-54. Lycia, added to Pamphylia by Claudius; Rhodes, in same reign.
- 106-116. Dacia, Armenia minor, Arabia Petræa, Mesopotamia; all added by Trajan as results of his campaigns, but given up by his successor Hadrian.

N.B.—The Roman Empire reached its greatest extent under

the Emperor Trajan.

(In B.C. 27 the provinces were divided by Augustus into Senatorial and Imperial, the latter being those frontier provinces where armies were needed: these were Lusitania; Hispania Tarraconensis; the three Gauls, Aquitania, Lugdunensis, and Belgica; Germania Superior and Inferior (probably attached to the government of Belgica); Mœsia; Pamphylia; Cilicia; Syria with Phœnice—governed by the Emperor's 'legati pro prætore.' The rest, with the exception of Egypt, were left in the Senate's hands.)

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT UNDER THE REPUBLIC.

When the Senate had resolved to form a province, ten commissioners were sent out, who, together with the victorious general, arranged terms with the conquered people, fixed the limits of the province, and drew up a constitution for it. Provincial governors were at first prætors, but as the number of provinces increased, consuls and practors, after a year of office in Rome, went out to provinces for a further year as proconsuls and proprætors, and the Senate had to determine which should be proconsular provinces before the election of consuls, the consuls and prætors then arranging among themselves who should go to each province. The command of a governor began on the day he entered his province; it usually lasted one year, but was sometimes extended by the Senate; his powers were practically those of the 'rex,' for they united military, judicial, and financial powers. By virtue of his 'imperium' the governor was commander-in-chief of all troops in his province, and could, in an emergency, order a local levy. These troops he could use as he thought fit, provided he did not quit his province. Again, by virtue of his 'imperium' and 'potestas,' he had supreme jurisdiction in all cases, criminal as well as civil, and could imprison, scourge, and put to death provincials. In these duties he was assisted by a board of assessors ('consilium').

The limits on a governor's power, which were miserably insuffi-

cient, were (1) tenure for one year only (in most cases); (2) the 'Lex Provinciæ,' as originally laid down by the Commissioners; (3) the 'Edictum tralaticium,' i.e., the whole body of 'edicta' of his predecessors; (4) (in theory only) the Senate; but in a distant province, and especially if he remained for more than one year, he soon threw off the Senate's control, and very little was heard of his proceedings. Theoretically, a provincial governor was liable to a trial for extortion and mal-administration ('res repetundæ') on his return to Rome, but the difficulties in the way of the provincials in proving their case, the expense of coming to Rome, and the certainty that bribery would be liberally employed to get a verdict favourable to the ex-governor were sufficient to render him almost absolutely safe on that point.

Among the main exactions and injustices from which the provincials suffered, the following may be mentioned:—(1) 'Progresses,' i.e., the governor on his way to his province demanded lodging and entertainment for himself and his suite ('cohors') from the towns through which he passed; (2) quartering of troops; (3) forcing natives to supply wild beasts for the shows at Rome, and exacting 'benevolences' for exhibiting such shows; (4) costly buildings, festivals, etc.; (5) presents to the governor; (6) extortion of every kind in levying the taxes.

N.B.—The condition of the provincials was immensely improved by the changes introduced by Augustus, especially by the direct responsibility of the governor to the Emperor. No longer had the provincial governor the maximum of power with the minimum of responsibility.

CHIEF HEADS OF ROMAN REVENUE.

- i. Dues, e.g., at temples and markets; customs.
- ii. Mines, e.g., salt and public property of a similar kind.
- iii. the Tributum, i.e., in Italy; only levied on particular occasions.
 N.B.—Abolished in 167, owing to influx of money, after 3rd
 Macedonian war.
- iv. Italian land: (1) 'ager publicus,' for the use of which the 'possessores' were supposed to pay a quit-rent; (2) 'ager assignatus,' possibly paying a small due.

(v.) the Provinces. N.B.—A mistaken notion arose that the provinces existed for the support of Italy; hence gross maladministration and exactions, with the further result that Italy ceased to attempt to be self-supporting.

EXPENDITURE.

- (i.) the 'cultus Romanus' (religion, etc.) was a State affair.
- (ii.) public secular buildings, roads, aqueducts, sewers, 'fora,' paving, etc.
- (iii.) the army and navy.
- (iv.) the 'Civil Service'; magistrates as such, e.g. consuls, were not paid, but a host of inferior magistrates and officials were; also provincial governors from time of Augustus. N.B.—There was no State payment for education till time of the Emperor Hadrian.
- (v.) the corn supply. N.B.-340,000 recipients after C. Gracchus.

THE PUNIC WARS-CAUSES AND RESULTS.

FIRST PUNIO WAR, B.C. 264-241.

(1) Real cause. Jealousy between Rome and Carthage. Which of the two is to be mistress in the Mediterranean?

(2) Immediate cause. Unjustifiable action of Rome in assisting the Mamertines at Messana in Sicily.

(3) Final victory of Rome at the Ægates Insulæ, 242.

(4) Results—Beginning of Rome's Empire outside Italy (Sicily 1st province); naval supremacy of Rome established.

N.E.—This first war not decisive, and both sides were aware that the struggle must be renewed. Rome, though victorious, suffered quite as much as Carthage, whose troops were mercenaries; 50,000 Romans are said to have fallen.

SECOND PUNIC WAR, B.C. 218-201.

(1) Real cause. A desire on both sides to decide once for all which is the stronger, coupled, on the Carthaginian side, with a keen feeling of revenge; towards this Hamilcar and Hasdrubal

B.C. 287. Third and last secession resulted in the Lex Hortensia, a confirmation of the Lex Valeria, finally establishing the legislative power of the tribe-assembly of the plebs.

THE TRIBUNATE; ITS ORIGIN AND FUNCTIONS.

In B.C. 494 the plebeians, impoverished by long wars, and cruelly oppressed by the patricians, seceded in a body to the Mons Sacer. Their worst grievance was the law of debt, and hitherto they had found no protection against the arbitrary behaviour of their patrician creditors. Under a threat of leaving Rome altogether, the plebeians forced the patricians to come to terms. First, it was agreed that debts should be cancelled and imprisoned debtors set free; and, secondly, two tribuni plebis were elected. The plebeians, it was enacted, were to meet once every year in an assembly of their own, and elect from their own body two tribunes to protect their persons and their interests. These tribunes, who soon were raised to five and in 457 to ten, had not the imperium, like the consuls, but they had the following powers:-(1) auxilium, the power of protecting a citizen from the action of a magistrate; (2) intercessio, the right of vetoing a magisterial decree, a 'rogatio,' or a 'senatusconsultum'; (3) the presidency of the assembled plebs, and the right to put 'rogationes' to them, which, if accepted, became 'plebiscita,' binding originally on the plebs only; (4) power to coerce and punish offenders against the plebs, subject to an appeal to that body.

Tribunes were elected for one year; their persons were 'sacrosancti,' inviolable and consecrated; the veto of one was as final as the veto of all; none but plebeians were eligible; their power did not extend more than one mile beyond the city gates, nor could they be absent from Rome for a whole day except during the 'Feria be absent from Rome for a sembled on the Alban Mount.

Latina,' when the whole people assembled on the Alban Mount.



had laboured incessantly in Spain; Rome's action in Sardinia and Corsica.

- (2) Immediate cause. Siege and sack of Saguntum by Hannibal, 219.
- (3) Final Roman victory at Zama, 202.
- (4) Results—(a) two new Roman provinces in Spain, held by four legions (necessitating permanent military service); Syracusan kingdom merged in province of Sicily: Numidia made into a dependent kingdom as a menace and annovance to Carthage; Carthage degraded into a helpless mercantile city without army, navy, or freedom of action : Rome's supremacy in the Mediterranean reasserted; (b) in Italy itself the war is marked by the destruction of the Gauls, and the harsh treatment of revolting towns and districts, e.g., Capua, Tarentum, Bruttium, Lucania, Apulia, Samnium, Picenum; an ever-widening barrier set up between sovereign Rome and the other Italian peoples; a narrow policy of exclusiveness; very little recognition of loyal services; (c) increase of the Senate's power at the expense of the magistrates and 'comitia,' owing to the necessary prolongation of military commands which were arranged by the Senate, and by its control of finance and foreign policy; (d) depopulation of Italy; disappearance of the old veoman class: growth of capitalist owners with huge estates ('latifundia') and employment of slave labour: Italy going out of cultivation: necessity for largely increased imports of foreign corn: influx of paupers into the towns, whom it is imperative to feed and amuse ('panem et circenses') for fear of riots; growth of the power of the army and the successful general. (N.B.-All the dangers that subsequently threatened and finally ruined the Republic were already beginning to show themselves.)

THIRD PUNIC WAR, B.C. 149-146.

- (1) Real cause. Commercial jealousy of the 'equites.'
- (2) Immediate cause. Aggressions of Masinissa met by armed resistance on part of Carthage, after remonstrance to Rome had proved fruitless.
- (3) Destruction of Carthage, B.C. 146.
- (4) Results—the Punic possessions are formed into province of Africa; growing influence of the mercantile class, the

'equites' or party of material interests, in Roman politics; a distinct change for the worse in Roman political morality. N.B.—All the evils, which had begun to show themselves during 2nd Punic war, have gone on steadily increasing; Rome's Empire has grown vastly, but the mass of the people are worse off, and Government by the Senate has become effete.

AGRARIAN LEGISLATION.

With the extension of the conquests of Rome, the 'ager publicus' or land confiscated from conquered peoples, constantly increased; for the patricians, as long as they monopolised the government, refused to make assignments of such lands to the plebeians. They preferred to keep the new territory as 'ager publicus,' ostensibly as State land paying dues to the Treasury, but really with the intention of converting it to their own use. Theirs were the cattle that grazed upon it, frequently too without paying the dues. In addition to this they employed slave-labour as being cheaper, and also because freemen were liable to be called off for military service. The struggle between patricians and plebeians over the 'ager publicus' dates from an early period, and led to the bitterest animosity. The numerous laws relating to the subject are known as 'Leges Agrariæ,' and of these the following are some of the more important:—

B.c. 486. Spurius Cassius, the Consul, proposed that (1) part of the land should be leased for the Treasury; the proceeds to go towards paying the army; (2) part should be allotted to needy

plebeians.

393. The territory of Veii is allotted to the plebs in lots of 7 jugera.

367. The Licinian Rogations deal the first severe blow to patrician privileges by limiting each individual's 'possessio' or occupation of public land to 500 jugera, and the grazing of not more than 500 sheep and 100 oxen on the public pastures. Each occupant of 'ager publicus' to employ a fair proportion of free labour.

232. Lex Flaminia assigned the lands of the conquered Senones in small lots.

- 133. Tiberius Gracchus, finding that all previous legislation had been evaded, and that the small estates had become absorbed by rich capitalists, revived the Licinian provisions with certain additions, e.g., 250 jugera extra for each son; inalienable lots of 30 jugera at a moderate rent to be distributed; a board of three to be appointed to carry out the necessary confiscation and distribution; the treasures of Attalus to be employed in providing tools and stock for the new settlers.
- 123. Gaius Gracchus renews his brother's agrarian law, but without practical effect owing to the difficulties to be surmounted, and the obstinate opposition encountered from interested parties.
- 59. Lex Julia, of J. Cæsar, distributed the 'ager Campanus' amongst 20,000 citizens. N.B. — During the civil wars, ordinary methods were no longer in vogue; large portions of public land were made over by Sulla, Pompey, J. Cæsar, and the Triumvirs, to their soldiers for the establishment of 'coloniæ militarea.'

CIVITAS.

The rights of a Roman possessing full 'civitas,' i.e., 'civis optimo jure,' were: I. (public rights) (a) 'jus suffragii,' the right of voting in the popular assemblies; (b) 'jus honorum,' the right of eligibility to all public offices; (c) 'jus provocationis,' the right of appeal to the people in a capital case. II. (private rights) (a) 'jus commercii,' the right of contracting a legal marriage; (b) 'jus commercii,' the right of acquiring, transferring, and holding property of all kinds according to the Roman laws.

Only patricians at first had these rights; by various laws the 'plebs' also.

- B.C. 509. Lex Valeria gives the 'plebs' 'jus provocationis' (right of appeal).
- 445. Lex Canuleia gives them 'jus conubii.'
- 367. Lex Licinia opens consulship to them, and thereby 'jus honorum,'

339. Lex Publilia admits them to the censorship. 300. Lex Ogulnia throws open the priesthood also.

Full citizens, besides those in Rome itself, were the occupants of the allotted public land, some few incorporated communities, e.g., Tusculum, and the 'coloniæ civium Romanorum,' i.e., the earlier colonies, e.g., Velitræ, and the 'coloniæ maritimæ,' e.g., Ostia, Antium, Minturnæ.

Communities possessing 'Civitas sine suffragio' had the above private, but not the public rights, e.g., Cære in Etruria; members of 'Latinæ coloniæ' were in this position, e.g. Bononia. These were called 'municipia' and enjoyed local self-government, apparently in

varying degrees.

Originally, Romans and Latins had been on an equal footing, and a Latin could become a full Roman citizen by removing his residence to Rome, but after the Latin war, B.C. 338, the members of the old Latin League had their rights much reduced. These, as distinct from the rest of the 'socii,' are known as 'nomen Latinum.' The position of the 'socii' varied according to their respective treaties with Rome.

N.B.—(1) After the Social War and the general enfranchisement of B.C. 88, all became full 'cives.' (2) The term 'municipium' and no other applied in Cicero's time to such old Latin and other allied communities in Italy as had received the full Roman franchise in B.C. 90, or later.

THE SOCIAL WAR.

The Social or Marsian War was the struggle carried on by the allies (socii) in Italy, B.O. 91-88, against Rome, in consequence of her refusal to grant their just demands. The main grievances of the allies were (1) excessive military burdens; (2) complete neglect of their interests in the land laws; (3) their absolute exclusion from the full franchise (civitas). Matters came to a head in B.O. 91, when M. Livius Drusus, a tribune, who had proposed to extend the franchise to the Italians, was accused of conspiracy with the Italians and murdered. The people of Asculum rose first and killed a pro-

consul; hereupon a general league of Picenians, Marsians, Pelignians, Marrucinians, Vestinians, Samnites, Apulians, Lucanians was formed: Corfinium was chosen as the capital of this new Italian league under the title of 'Italica'; consuls, a senate, and comitia were established. and Rome's authority was openly set at defiance. The Senate, taken by surprise and unprepared, met at first with serious reverses; a consul was defeated and killed by the Marsians; and it was not till C. Marius took the command that the tide of ill success was stemmed. The results of the first campaign were wholly favourable to the insurgents, and, as a result, Etruria and Umbria, hitherto loval to Rome, joined in the revolt. A compromise seemed inevitable, and accordingly at the close of B.C. 90, the Consul carried the 'Lex Julia,' conferring the franchise on every Italian community which had not yet revolted; this was soon followed by another bill, carried by the tribunes, the 'Lex Plautia Papiria,' to the effect that any resident of an Italian township who presented himself before a Roman magistrate within sixty days should be enfranchised. In this way distrust was spread among the allies, and their concentration, never very firm, was further loosened. The year 89 opened with a vigorous campaign on the Roman side; Pompeius Strabo the Consul in the north carried Asculum by storm and forced the submission of the surrounding peoples; while Sulla in the south overran Campania and Samnium: in 88 Bovianum, the Samnite stronghold, fell; and though Nola in Campania and the Samnites still held out, the war was practically over.

The result of the war, which had cost 300,000 lives, was that the Latins and the bulk of the Italians received the full franchise; but as they were enrolled in only eight of the thirty-five tribes, and few could travel to Rome to take part in the elections, their political power was not very great. N.B.—The name 'socii' disappears

henceforth.

THE TRIUMVIRATES.

I. The coalition between J. Cæsar, Pompey the Great, and M. Crassus in B.C. 60 is usually known as the first triumvirate, but it should be borne in mind that these three never bore the title of

'triumviri,' nor were invested with any office under that name. It was purely a private compact formed by the three most powerful men of the time to forward their private ends, whereas the name 'triumviri' implied a commission granted by constituted authority for carrying out some public work.

This bargain was arranged in order to secure (1) for Cæsar the consulship in 59, to be followed by a governorship, (2) for Pompey the ratification of his acts in the East. (N.B.—Crassus was admitted only on account of his enormous wealth.) A renewal of the bargain took place in 56, after the conference at Luca, whereby Pompey received a command in Spain for five years, Crassus in Syria for five years, and Cæsar a prolongation of his command in Gaul for a further five.

II. The second triumvirate (a triumvirate in the real sense of the term) was a commission intrusted in 43 to Octavianus, M. Antonius, and Lepidus for five years, under the title of 'triumviri reipublicæ constituendæ,' to administer the affairs of the State. On the expiration of this term in 38, it was again conferred for five years more. This second triumvirate was recognised by the people, and the title was given by means of a law.

POMPEY'S CAMPAIGNS IN THE EAST.

In B.C. 66 the Lex Manilia conferred on Pompey supreme command for an indefinite period against Mithradates. Pompey at once concluded a treaty with Phraates, king of Parthia, who was thus deterred from joining Tigranes, king of Armenia. He next collected the remnants of the army of Lucullus, and, adding this to his own, trossed the frontier of Pontus early in 66 at the head of a very powerful army; Mithradates, retreating before him, was finally brought to bay at Nicopolis, and his forces utterly destroyed. The defeated king fled to Tigranes, but, finding himself abandoned, turned northward, closely pursued by Pompey, who only desisted from the chase when Mithradates crossed the Phasis. Pompey next turned his attention to Armenia, but Tigranes voluntarily submitted and peace was concluded with him. Thus in a single campaign these two great kings had been successfully dealt with.

Still Mithradates was at large, and Pompey found the pursuit of him through the Caucasus so difficult and the resistance of the Iberians and Albanians so stubborn that he returned to Pontus, and finally quelled disturbance there. Thence he proceeded to Syria, and by his energetic and politic measures restored order in that district. Syria was definitely annexed to Rome as a province, in 64; the various petty kings were put down, Jerusalem was taken and the Maccabees crushed, the robber chiefs chastised, and the affairs of the various disorderly communities reduced to some order. But this settlement of Syria brought Rome once more into close proximity with Parthia. Pompey's injudicious peace with Phraates when he assigned the Euphrates as the frontier, was now in danger of being rudely broken owing to his having handed over a part of the Parthian Empire to Armenia. Parthia, indeed, made war on Armenia, but gave way to Roman arbitration. It only remained now to organise these new conquests. Several new provinces were formed, viz., Bithynia and Pontus, Cilicia including Pamphylia and Isauria, Syria, and Crete. Care was also taken in arranging the kingdoms of Cappadocia and Galatia that the command of the Euphrates should be left in the hands of friendly chieftains (e.g., Deiotarus of Galatia), entirely dependent on Rome. In every case Pompey used as much as possible the existing machinery. Numerous new cities were likewise founded (e.g., thirty-nine in Pontus) in order to spread civilisation, while many old towns were strengthened by new privileges; and it was this elevation of urban life, begun by Lucullus and completed by Pompey, that remained as the best memorial of their work in the East. Most of these new towns were peopled, not by bringing colonists from a distance, but by collecting the inhabitants of the district within the walls and by the suppression of villages. The value of Pompey's settlement was recognised by Augustus so clearly that when he regulated the East after the battle of Actium, he made but little change in Pompey's arrangementa.

CÆSAR'S CAMPAIGNS IN GAUL.

B.C. 58. Defeat of the invading Helvetii at Bibracte. Defeat of the Germans under Ariovistus. (Cæsar acts as defender of the Gauls; the Rhine becomes the boundary of the Roman empire.)

B.C. 57. Defeat of the Belgæ; submission of the Nervii after

severe fighting on the Sabis (Sambre).

B.C. 56. Conquest of the Veneti, a naval people in the N.W.

corner of Gaul, accompanied by savage vengeance.

B.C. 55. Treacherous detention of the chiefs of the Usipetes and Tenctheri, followed by a ruthless slaughter of these people. Caesar crosses the Rhine to punish the Sigambri, and makes his 1st Expedition to Britain (only eighteen days; a failure). N.B.—Rhine and the Channel thus proclaimed as frontiers.

B.C. 54. 2nd expedition to Britain; a merely nominal subjection of the S.E. of the island. N.B.—Henceforth Cæsar is occupied in checking revolts and organising his conquests. Revolt of the Eburones under Ambiorix; a Roman camp near Aduatuca suddenly attacked and the troops cut to pieces; fresh movements of the Nervii, just checked in time by Cæsar.

B.C. 53. Subjection of the Menapii and Treviri; extermination of the Eburones who had revolted; danger of a general revolt imminent.

B.C. 52. Revolt of the Arverni under Vercingetorix, joined by all the Gauls. Capture of Avaricum (Bourges); slaughter of inhabitants. Defeat of Cæsar at Gergovia leads to fresh defections, e.g. the Ædui, hitherto loyal. Siege and capture of Alesia; surrender of Vercingetorix (who was afterwards executed by Cæsar); end of the insurrection.

B.C. 51. Subdual of remaining rebels. Capture of Uxellodunum. Organisation of Gaul.

THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN.

The Romans first became personally acquainted with Britain in the time of J. Cæsar, who twice invaded it B.C. 55, 54; on the first

occasion he remained only eighteen days and effected nothing; on the second he subdued the S.E. of the island, conquering Cassivellaunus the native chieftain; but no permanent possession resulted, and Britain still remained practically independent. No further attempt was made to subdue the island till the reign of the Emperor Claudius, when his officer, Aulus Plautius, permanently subdued the country S. of the Thames, and this constituted the province of Britain A.D. 44. Caractacus, king of the Silures, after a brave resistance, was overpowered and captured. Roman conquest now extended itself, and the great victory of Suetonius Paulinus, at Camalodunum (Colchester), over Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, who had headed a revolt, consolidated Roman dominion. Vespasian made several successful expeditions against the Silures and Brigantes, but the conquest of S. Britain was finally completed by Agricola, who, in seven campaigns (78-84), subdued the whole island as far north as the Forth and the Clyde, erecting a chain of forts to keep out the Caledonians. Hadrian (117-138) gave up the north, and drew a rampart of turf from the Solway Firth to the German Ocean. Antoninus Pius (138-161) reverted to Agricola's frontier, connecting the Forth and Clyde by a rampart, now called 'Grime's Dyke,' Repeated inroads of the barbarians from the north compelled the abandonment of this frontier. Accordingly the Emperor Severus, who divided Britain into two provinces, the upper and the lower, erected a solid stone wall from the Solway Firth to the mouth of the Tyne; he died at Eboracum (York) A.D. 211. No subsequent advance beyond this wall was attempted by the Romans, and, long before the withdrawal of Roman troops in A.D. 407 by Constantine, the Caledonians (Picts and Scots) and the Saxons had broken through and devastated the country, as the Roman resistance became less and less effectual.

CAUSES WHICH LED TO THE CHANGE FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE.

I. The universal longing for rest and peace at any price, owing to the general exhaustion and feeling of insecurity, coupled with the fact that the long years of civil war had brought nothing but misery to the people as a whole; one rival claimant for power was to the mass much the same as another.

II. The rule of one man was by the time of Augustus no new thing; people had become used to it and almost reconciled to it from the example of Sulla and Julius Cæsar; it only needed the thin disguise adopted by Augustus to make them shut their eyes to the reality of absolutism, and bow their necks submissively to any master who was strong enough to coerce all rivals and give the world peace; this was what Augustus did, and it was this that justified his autocracy, and even won him at first deep gratitude.

III. The proved incapacity of the Senate and the people to carry on the government of a world-empire, and the obvious necessity for substituting one strong will for the petty jealousies and bickerings, which, for more than a century, had endangered the stability of Roman rule at home and abroad.

IV. The extent of the Empire had made centralisation necessary; while provincial misgovernment cried for reform which could never come from the corrupt body of oligarchs who had hitherto claimed to control the provinces.

N.B.—What J. Cæsar had schemed, Augustus carried out. The system in most of its details was devised by Julius, but he failed by being too frank and open; Augustus, by dissembling its reality under republican forms, was able to impose a despotism, pure and simple, on his subjects.

AUGUSTUS.

I. Hrs Powers.—The defeat of Antony and Cleopatra at Actium in B.C. 31, and their suicide the next year, left Octavian without a rival. The great struggle between the East and West had been decided in his favour. Returning victorious to Rome in 29, honours of all kinds were lavished upon him by the Senate, and all his acts were confirmed; he was made imperator permanently, and was invested with the powers (not the name) of censor. In B.C. 27 he laid down the extraordinary quasi-dictatorial power which he had held from 33 till now, and received instead proconsulare imperium, with the title of princeps senatus. In this year also he assumed the title Augustus, and it is usual to date the

beginning of the Empire from this year. In 23 he resigned the consulship, held since 33, and received tribunicia potestas for life. In B.C. 19 he accepted consularis potestas for life; and in B.C. 12, on the death of Lepidus, he was made pontifex maximus for life.

The policy of Augustus was to retain the outward form of the republic, but to gather up all real power in his own hands; and this he thoroughly achieved, for (a) as imperator, he commanded the armies of Rome and appointed all military officers, (b) his consularis potestas and tribunicia potestas enabled him to summon the Senate and Comitia, to veto laws, control magistrates, and issue his own edicts, (c) proconsulare imperium gave him unlimited sway over all the provinces, (d) censoria potestas enabled him to revise the Senate, classify the citizens, and regulate finance, (e) as pontifex maximus, he was head of the State religion, (f) as princeps senatus, he spoke first in the Senate and so could influence its decisions.

II. Provincial Government.—In B.C. 27 Augustus divided the provinces into two classes, Schatorial and Imperial. The Senatorial were governed by proconsuls and propraetors sent out by the Senate; the Imperial by the Emperor's own legati; these latter were the frontier provinces where armies were needed. Henceforth provincial governors received a fixed salary, and a procurator fisci, or financial agent, was sent out with them to render strict account of their stewardship to the Emperor. His own legati in the imperial provinces were, of course, responsible directly to him. N.B.—Egypt was specially governed by an equestrian præfectus; no senator was allowed to set foot in it without special leave, owing to fear of a rival Empire.

III. Wars.—These were mainly to protect frontier, and were chiefly carried on by his personal friends, e.g., Vipsanius Agrippa, or relatives, e.g., his stepsons Tiberius and Drusus.

26-19 Campaigns against the Cantabri, not finally subdued till Agrippa transplanted them bodily in 19 from their highland fastnesses into the plains, and prevented their return.

24 Unsuccessful expedition by the prefect of Egypt to Arabia Felix (Yemen).

22 Defeat of invading Ethiopians by prefect of Egypt; qualified submission.

20 Disturbances in Parthia; Augustus assists the dethroned king Phraates, and so recovers the lost standards. N.B.—No fighting. Tiberius places Tigranes on Armenian throne. 16-A.D. 10 Incessant wars in Pannonia and Dalmatia; campaigns of Tiberius and Drusus; Pannonia becomes a province in A.D. 10.

15 Tiberius and Drusus subdue Rhæti, Vindelici, and Norici.

12 to end of reign, a succession of campaigns by Drusus, and, after his death in B.C. 9, by Tiberius, and, later, by Germanicus against the restless German tribes; attempts to secure a strong frontier.

A.D. 9 Rising in N.W. Germany; Arminius annihilates Roman army under Varus.

IV. MILITARY FORCES.—25 legions of 6,100 foot and 726 horse apiece: viz., 8 on the Rhine; 2 on the Danube; 4 on the Euphrates; 3 in Spain; 5 in Pannonia and Dalmatia; 2 in Egypt; 1 in Africa. Also 3 fleets: one at Ravenna to guard the Adriatic; another at Misenum to guard the western coast of Italy; a third at Forum Julii to guard the Narbonese coast; likewise minor flotillas to watch the Rhine, Danube, and Euphrates, the great frontier rivers.

To these Augustus added, for special service in or near Rome, 9 or 10 prætorian cohorts; 3 cohortes urbanæ; 7 cohortes vigilum (each cohort of 1000 men).

V. Sources of Revenue: (1) tributum soli, land-tax; (2) tributum capitis, poll-tax, where there was no landed property to be assessed; (3) vectigalia, duties on imports and exports, royalties on mines and salt works, rents of public pastures.

The revenues of senatorial provinces were paid into the serarium, which had to provide for the pay of the Senate's officials, the cost of public works, and the corn-doles. The revenues of the rest went into the fiscus, the imperial purse, from which was provided the keeping up of the entire armament of the Empire, the pay of imperial officials and household, and heavy voluntary outlays as well.

VI. GREAT MEN OF HIS REIGN.—Vipsanius Agrippa, general and statesman; Maccenas, statesman and patron of letters and art; Tiberius (his successor), general and organiser; Drusus, general; Livy, historian; Vergil, Horace, Ovid, Tibulius, Propertius, poets; Asinius Pollio, poet, historian, and soldier.

VII. THE "MONUMENTUM ANCYRANUM."—A copy of the chronicle of his life prepared by Augustus. The original on brass set up before his mausoleum is lost; but, at the town of Ancyra in Galatia, the priests of the temple of Augustus had had a complete copy carved upon one of the walls. In it is recorded a summary of all the acts

of his life which Augustus cared to record: a list of his battles and victories; of the nations under his rule and the princes under his protection; of the colonies he had founded and of the sums he had expended on his people, together with a description of the numerous public buildings with which he had beautified Rome and added to its convenience.

CAUSES OF THE DECLINE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

I. The depopulation of Italy, owing (1) to the long wars, especially the Punic and Social, (2) to the growing distaste for marriage, (3) infanticide.

II. Decay of the small farmers, owing (1) to the mortality in the centuries of war, and the heavy losses which the yeoman class had suffered from Hannibal's occupation of Italy and the planting of military colonies; (2) to the growth of 'latifundia'; (3) to the universal employment of slave-labour; (4) to the importation of cheap foreign corn.

III. The influence of slavery: (1) wasteful of human life; no precautions were taken to preserve lives which could (at first) be so easily and cheaply replaced; hence Italy became unhealthy in some parts, uncultivated in others, and dangerous throughout; (2) demoralising to those who employ slave labour; brought out the worst side of the Roman character.

IV. The attractions of town-life and discouragement to industry: the corn-doles, largesses, shows, and games carried the rural population bodily into Rome and the provincial towns which copied Rome; pauperism on a gigantic scale followed as a matter of course.

V. The influence of foreign customs and conquest on the national character: (1) a belief grew up that Italy need do nothing to support herself; hence no productive industries; the provinces to feed and amuse the capital; (2) an alarming increase of vice, crime, and the most unbridled luxury; as Rome grew richer and more populous, Italy became poorer, less productive, and more thinly populated,—and this in spite of the most desperate efforts on the part of Augustus to stave off the ruin which he already saw to be only too clearly impending.

HISTORICAL ALLUSIONS IN ROMAN POETRY.

HORACE (b. B.C. 65; d. B.C. 8).

"Sedilibusque magnus in primis eques Othone contempto sedet."—Epodes, iv. 15.

The law of L. Roseius Otho, tribune in B.C. 67, gave the fourteen rows next to the senators' seats in the theatre to the Equites; a very unpopular measure. *Cf.* also *Juvenal*, iii. 159: "Sie libitum vano, qui nos distinxit, Othoni."

"Ibis Liburnis inter alta navium, Amice, propugnacula."—Epodes, i. 1.

An allusion either to the war in B.C. 36 with Sextus Pompeius, or, more probably, to the year B.C. 31 when Octavian assembled all his partisans at Brundisium for the final effort against Antony and Cleopatra. Maecenas, who is here addressed, did not go to Actium, as a matter of fact, but was sent to Rome to take charge of affairs.

'Liburnæ' or 'Liburnicæ' were light galleys used by the Liburni, the Illyrian pirates; very useful to Octavian at Actium against the unwieldy galleons of Antony and Cleopatra.

"Quam neque finitimi valuerunt perdere Marsi,¹ Minacis aut Etrusca Porsenae² manus, Aemula nec virtus Capuae,³ nec Spartacus⁴ acer,

⁽¹⁾ The Marsic or Social war, B.C. 90-88, in which the Marsi took the lead among the allies against Rome.—Cf. Odes, III. xiv. 18; "Cadum Marsi memorem duelli."

⁽²⁾ In B.C. 508 Lars Porsena of Clusium captured and humiliated Rome.

⁽³⁾ Capua, a rival of Rome in early times, placed itself under Rome's protection in 4th century, when hard pressed by the Samnites, but revolted to Hannibal after Cannae in 216, was compelled to surrender in 211, and mercilessly punished.

⁽⁴⁾ Spartacus, the great leader in the Gladiatorial or Servile War,

Novisque rebus infidelis Allobrox,1 Nec fera caerulea domuit Germania 2 pube, Parentibusque abominatus Hannibal.3"—Epodes, xvi. 3-8.

i. "Attalicis condicionibus." - Odes, I. i. 12.

"neque Attali

Ignotus heres regiam occupavi."—Odes, II. xviii. 6.

The wealth of Attalus was proverbial. He died in B.C. 133, and, according to the Roman interpretation of his will, bequeathed his kingdom of Pergamus (the Roman province of Asia afterwards) to Rome.

- i. "Catonis nobile letum." Odes, I. xii. 35.
- ii. "Et cuncta terrarum subacta

Praeter atrocem animum Catonis."—II. i. 23.

iii. "Victrix causa deis placuit, sed victa Catoni."—Lucan, i. 128. Cato, the younger, or Uticensis, committed suicide after the defeat of the Pompeians at Thapsus in B.C. 46, rather than surrender to Cæsar.

"animaeque magnae Prodigum Paulum superante Pœno,"-Odes, I. xii. 37.

Æmilius Paulus refused to leave the field after the defeat at Cannae, B.C. 216; he was killed, but his rash colleague, Terentius Varro, who had provoked the battle, escaped.

73-71, finally defeated by M. Crassus, the triumvir.—Cf. Odes, III. xiv. 19:

"Spartacum si qua potuit vagantem Fallere testa."

- (1) The envoys of the Allobroges in B.C. 63 first encouraged the advances of the Catilinarian conspirators, and then betrayed the plot to Cicero.
- (2) Irruption of Teutones and Cimbri, checked by Marius at Aquae Sextiae in 102, and at Vercellae in 101.
 - (3) 2nd Punic war, 218-202.

"Crescit occulto velut arbor aevo Fama Marcelli."—Odes, I. xii. 45.

The glory of the house of Marcellus dated from M. Marcellus, 5 times consul 222-208; won 'spolia opima' cf. Æn., vi. 855 "insignis spoliis Marcellus opimis" from Viridomarus the Gaul; took Syracuse in 212; ably opposed Hannibal till killed at Venusia in 208.

A descendant of this man was adopted by Augustus and married to his daughter Julia, but died young. *Cf.* the famous passage in *Vergil Æn.*, vi. 869 seqq., and *Propertius*, IV. xviii.

i. "quis sub Arcto Rex gelidae metuatur orae, Quid Tiridaten terreat, unice Securus."—Odes, I. xxvi. 3.

ii. "Redditum Cyri solio Phraaten." - Odes, II. ii. 17.

iii. "Medus infestus sibi luctuosis

Dissidet armis."—Odes, III. viii. 19.

In B.C. 38 Phraates IV. succeeded Orodes as king of Parthia; he was expelled for tyranny, and Tiridates was placed on the throne; in the subsequent struggles, Tiridates fled to Augustus, probably in B.C. 30.

N.B.—Horace and other Augustan writers use 'Parthi, Medi,

Persae' indifferently to represent their Parthian enemies.

"Motum ex Metello consule civicum." - Odes, II. i. 1.

Q. Caecilius Metellus Celer was consul in B.C. 60, the year of the compact between Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus (1st Triumvirate, so called).

'uterque Pœnus.'—Odes, II. ii. 11.

i.e., Carthage in Africa (Tunis), and Nova Carthago (Carthagena) in Spain, the latter founded by Hasdrubal, 228-220.

'Palatinus Apollo.'—Epist., I. iii. 17.

In B.C. 28 Augustus, in memory of Actium (where also stood a temple of Apollo), dedicated the famous temple and library on the

Palatine. Allusions to it abound in the Latin classics. Cf. Epist., II. i. 217; II. ii. 94; Odes, I. xxxi. 1; Propertius, iii. 23; Suet. Aug., 29. Cf. also "Musa, Palatini referemus Apollinis aedem."-Prop., V. vi. 11.

i. "Cantabrum indoctum juga ferre nostra."—Odes, II. vi. 2.

ii. "Quid bellicosus Cantaber . . .

cogitet, remittas quaerere."—Odes, II. xi. i.

iii. "Servit Hispanae vetus hostis orae

Cantaber sera domitus catena."—Odes, III. viii. 21.

The Cantabri, inhabiting the mountains on N. coast of Spain, had always been troublesome to Rome, and were still in arms in B.C. 29, at the time of the general pacification. Augustus in B.O. 24, and his generals afterwards, made frequent efforts to suppress them, but it was not till B.c. 19 that they were finally subdued by Vipsanius Agrippa, and the survivors transferred to the lowlands.

Cf. also Odes, IV. xiv. 41. "Te Cantaber non ante domabilis Miratur."

> "Cantaber Agrippae . . . virtute Epist., I. xii. 26. cecidit."

> Odes, III. xiv. 3. "Caesar Hispana repetit penates Victor ab ora,"

"Tecum Philippos et celerem fugam Sensi,"-Odes, II. vii. 9.

The defeat of the republicans under Brutus and Cassius by Antony and Octavian at Philippi, on Mount Pangaeus in Macedonia, B.o. 42. Horace was a tribune in the army of Brutus; was pardoned by Octavian afterwards.

"me dimisere Philippi, Cf. Epist., II. ii. 49. Decisis humilem pennis inopemque paterni" . . . also Sat., I. vi. 48; and Verg. Georgic i. 489.

"Siculum mare

Poeno purpureum sanguine."—Odes, II. xii. 2.

The coasts of Sicily were the scene of the most important seafights in 1st Punic war (264-241), e.g., battle of Mylæ, 260; and Ægates Insulæ, 242.

"Longa feræ bella Numantiæ."—Odes, II. xii. 1.

Numantia, the capital of Celtiberia in Spain; long the headquarters of the Celtiberi in their brave resistance to Roman oppression and cruelty; the struggle known as the Celtiberian or Numantine war ended in 133 with the destruction of Numantia by Scipio Æmilianus Africanus minor after a protracted siege.

> "Jam bis Monæses et Pacori manus Non auspicatos contudit impetus Nostros."—Odes, III. vi. 9.

Possibly Monæses was the name of the Parthian conqueror at Carrae in 53; he is elsewhere called Surenas, but some regard this as a title. The other defeat was that of Antony's lieutenant, Decidius Saxa, in 40, by Pacorus, son of Orodes.

At Carrae many standards were lost, and many Romans captured;

these were eventually recovered by Augustus in B.C. 20.

"Occidit Daci Cotisonis agmen.—Odes, III. viii. 18.

Victory of M. Crassus, a general of Octavian, over the Dacians under King Cotiso, and the Bastarnæ and Mœsi in B.C. 30.

i. "Cantaber Agrippae, Claudi virtute Neronis Armenius cecidit; jus imperiumque Phraates Cæsaris accepit genibus minor."—Epist., I. xii. 26.

ii. "potius nova
Cantemus Augusti tropæa
Cæsaris et rigidum Niphatem
Medumque flumen gentibus additum
Victis minores volvere vertices."—Odes, II. ix. 18.

iii. "Tua, Cæsar, ætas signa nostro restituit Jovi

Derepta Parthorum superbis Postibus."—Odes, IV. xv. 6.

iv. "Sub duce, qui templis Parthorum signa refigit."—Epist.,
I. xviii, 56.

v. "Juvenis Parthis horrendus, et alto Demissum genus Ænea."—Sat., II. v. 62. vi. "Et formidatam Parthis te principe Romam."—Epist., II. i. 256.

The Cantabrians were finally reduced by Vipsanius Agrippa in B.C. 19.

In B.C. 20 Tiberius Nero, stepson of Augustus, placed Tigranes on the throne of Armenia. In the same year Phraates restored the standards and prisoners taken from Crassus at Carrae in 53 and also from M. Antonius later on.

N.B.—Roman writers of the Augustan age are never weary of celebrating this recovery of the standards by Augustus, which was not the result of successful fighting, but of negotiation. The tone of gross exaggeration is only intelligible in court poets. As a matter of history, the Parthians had received little check save in 39 and 38 when Ventidius gained some successes over them; all other generals had signally failed to wipe out the disgrace of Carrae, and it was very keenly felt by Romans. For further allusions to the Parthians of. Verg. Georg. iii. 30. Æn. vii. 606. Ovid Fast. v. 526. Propert. V. vi. 79.

i. "Videre Rhætis bella sub Alpibus Drusum gerentem Vindelici."—Odes, IV. iv. 17.

ii. "Major Neronum mox grave prœlium Commisit immanesque Rhætos Auspiciis pepulit secundis."—Odes, IV. xiv. 14.

In B.C. 15 Drusus, the younger stepson of Augustus, entered Rhætia (i.e. the Tyrol and the Grisons) by the Brenner pass, and overthrew the native tribes, the Vindelici, Genauni, and Breuni near Tridentum (Trent). Meantime Tiberius his brother, the 'Major Neronum,' ascended the Rhine Valley to Lake Constance and thence penetrated the gorges of the upper Rhine and Inn in every direction. At the end of the campaign the whole country was subdued, and the Rhine frontier secured by a chain of forts. In the same year Rhætia and Noricum became imperial provinces.

"Custos gentis, abes jam nimium diu;
Lucem redde tuae, dux bone, patriae."—Odes, IV. v. 2, 5.

After the serious defeat of Lollius in B.O. 16 by the Sygambri, in the neighbourhood of Bonn, Augustus himself started to chastise

them, and was absent three years from Rome ; his protracted absence was felt, as he had designed.

"qui domita nomen ab Africa Lucratus rediit."—Odes, IV. viii. 18.

The title 'Africanus' won by Scipio the elder at Zama in 202, and again by Scipio Æmilianus by the conquest and destruction of Carthage in 146.

"vacuum duellis Janum Quirini clausit."—Odes, IV. xv. 8.

During Augustus' reign the temple of Janus was closed thrice as a sign of universal peace: in B.C. 29, on his return from the East; in 25, after the temporary suppression of the Cantabri; and perhaps in 9, but the third occasion is not certainly known.

"quo die Portus Alexandrea supplex Et vacuam patefecit aulam."—Odes, IV. xiv. 34.

After defeating Antony and Cleopatra at Actium in B.C. 31, Octavian passed on to the East, making his victorious entry into Alexandria in August B.C. 30; Antony and Cleopatra had meantime taken their lives.

"Quid debeas, O Roma, Neronibus Testis Metaurum flumen et Hasdrubal Devictus."—Odes, iv. IV. 37.

At the river Metaurus in Umbria, the consuls C. Claudius Nero and M. Livius Salinator defeated and killed Hasdrubal in B.C. 207, and so ended all danger of a junction between him and Hannibal. This victory was the turning point in the 2nd Punic war. Cf. IV. iv. 69:

Spes omnis et fortuna nostri Nominis, Hasdrubale interempto."

Hannibal's supposed lament on hearing the news.

N.B.—It should be remembered that Tiberius and Drusus, the stepsons of Augustus, were 'Nerones'; this is why Claudius Nero

gets all the credit. Of. IV. iv. 73: "Nil Claudiæ non perficient manus."

"tabulas peccare vetantes

Quas bis quinque viri sanxerunt."—Epist., II. i. 23.

The XII. Tables, codification of the law by the Decemvirs in B.C.

450.

VERGIL (b. B.C. 70, d. B.C. 19).

"An memorem portus, Lucrinoque addita claustra,
Atque indignatum magnis stridoribus æquor,
Julia qua ponto longe sonat unda refuso,
Tyrrhenusque fretis immittitur æstus Avernis?"—Georg. ii. 161.

The lakes Avernus and Lucrinus were two small land-locked pools on the Campanian coast between Misenum and Puteoli. Vipsanius Agrippa united them by a canal, faced the mound which separated the Lucrine lake from the sea with masonry, and pierced it with a channel for the admission of large ships, B.C. 37: this splendid achievement went by the name of the 'Portus Julius.'

Of. Horace, Ars Poet. 63. "receptus Terra Neptunus classes Aquilonibus arcet."

"Deus nobis hæc otia fecit."-Ecl. i. 6.

The feeling of relief at the close of the Civil wars, and of security under the strong government of Augustus, led to his deification in many parts of the Empire; divine honours were publicly decreed him by Italian towns in B.C. 36.

"Ergo inter sese paribus concurrere telis Romanas acies iterum videre Philippi; Nec fuit indignum superis, bis sanguine nostro Emathiam et latos Hæmi pinguescere campos."

-Georg. i. 489.

Two battles at Philippi in Macedonia in B.C. 42 within 20 days; Brutus winning the first, but losing the second irretrievably. The other allusion is to the battle of Pharsalus in Thessaly, B.C. 48, defeat of Pompey by J. Cossar.

"Fidentemque fuga l'arthum versisque sagittis."—Georg. iii. 31.

The usual Parthian tactics, so successful at Carrae in B.O. 53, were to pretend flight, and pour in volleys of arrows whilst riding off.

"Hinc movet Euphrates, illinc Germania bellum."-Georg. i. 509.

In B.C. 36 M. Antonius had been driven with heavy loss out of Parthia, and Phraates had at once overrun Armenia and Media. In B.C. 38 Gaul and Germany had risen in most formidable rebellion, and Agrippa had to be sent against them.

- "Exoriare aliquis nostris ex ossibus ultor, Qui face Dardanios ferroque sequare colonos."—Æn. iv. 625.
- ii. "Adveniet justum pugnæ, ne arcessite, tempus
 Cum fera Carthago Romanis arcibus olim
 Exitium magnum atque Alpes immittet apertas."— En. x. 11.

The curse of Dido on Æneas may be said to have been realised in Hannibal's march over the Alps and invasion of Italy; the 2nd Punic war, 218-202.

"At Cæsar, triplici invectus Romana triumpho Mœnia, dis Italis votum immortale sacrabat,

Maxima tercentum totam delubra per Urbem."—Æn. viii. 716.

Octavian on his return to Rome in B.C. 29 from the East had a triple triumph for his campaigns in Dalmatia and Pannonia, Actium, and Egypt.

It was part of his policy to restore the old temples and build

new ones.

"Aggeribus socer Alpinis atque arce Monœci Descendens; gener adversis instructus Eoïs."

Cæsar's daughter, Julia, was married to Pompey; this marriage delayed civil war for a time, but she died in B.C. 54 and the crisis could no longer be averted. Cæsar's troops were his Gallic veterans; Pompey's were largely composed of his Eastern levies.

"geminos, duo fulmina belli, Scipiadas, cladem Libyae."—Æn. vi. 843.

The elder and younger Scipio Africanus; one the victor at Zama,

202, which defeat of the Carthaginians ended their empire; the other the destroyer of Carthage at end of 3rd Punic war, 146.

i. "tu Maximus ille es

Unus qui nobis cunctando restituis rem."—Æn. vi. 845.

ii. "Unus homo nobis cunctando restituit rem."—Ennius.

iii. "Victricesque moras Fabii."—Propert. IV. ii. 9.

Q. Fabius Maximus Cunctator, whose policy of avoiding pitched battles and wearing Hannibal down by harassing tactics did much to retrieve Rome's fortunes after the early disasters of the 2nd Punic war.

"Heu, miserande puer! si qua fata aspera rumpas,
Tu Marcellus eris."—Æn. vi. 882.

M. Marcellus, the younger, son of Octavia, Augustus' sister, was adopted by the Emperor in B.C. 25 and married to his daughter Julia; his death at the age of twenty was a cause of very real regret at Rome. (Cf. the whole passage, Æn. vi. 861-883; an eloquent tribute to his memory).

"In medio classes æratas, Actia bella,
Cernere erat; totumque instructo Marte videres
Fervere Leucaten, auroque effulgere fluctus.
Hinc Augustus agens Italos in prœlia Cæsar
Cum patribus, populoque, penatibus et magnis dis,
Stans celsa in puppi: geminas cui tempora flammas
Læta vomunt, patriumque aperitur vertice sidus.
Parte alia ventis et dis Agrippa secundis
Arduus agmen agens: cui, belli insigne superbum,
Tempora navali fulgent rostrata corona.
Hinc ope barbarica variisque Antonius armis
Victor ab Auroræ populis et litore rubro
Ægyptum viresque Orientis et ultima secum
Bactra vehit; sequiturque, nefas! Ægyptia conjux."
—Æn, viii. 675-688.

A description of the battle of Actium B.C. 31. Vipsanius Agrippa was in command of Octavian's fleet; Octavian led the land forces; Antony and Cleopatra were both present with a motley following

of Eastern levies. Antony is presumably called "Victor ab Aurora," etc. in virtue not of his own successes but of those of Ventidius his lieutenant over the Parthians in 38.

For the Roman feeling about Antony's relations with Cleopatra, and the sense of relief at Octavian's victory, cf. Horace, Odes, I.

xxxvii.

Propertius, b. circ. B.c. 51, d. circ. 16. "Crassos clademque piate," IV. iii. 9.

Defeat of M. Crassus at Carrae by the Parthians, B.C. 53; father and son were killed after the battle at a conference. Augustus projected an expedition against them in B.C. 22, which he carried out, without any fighting, in B.C. 20, and recovered the lost standards by negotiation. Cf. Prop. V. vi. 79: "sero confessum feedere Parthum."

"Aut quibus in campis Mariano proelia signo Stent et Teutonicas Roma refringat opes," IV. iii. 43, 44.

Marius utterly defeated the Teutones at Aquae Sextiae (Aix in Provence), B.c. 102; and subsequently with the aid of Catulus annihilated the Cimbri at Vercellae on the Raudine plain, 101.

OVID, b. B.O. 43, d. A.D. 18.

 "Parthe, dabis pœnas : Crassi gaudete sepulti, Signaque barbaricas non bene passa manus."—Ars Amat. i. 179.

ii. "Parthe refers aquilas."

iii. "Ecce fugax Parthus magni nova causa triumphi."—Remed. Amoris, 155.

Recovery of the standards lost at Carrae in B.C. 53 by means of negotiations between Augustus and the Parthian King Phraates in B.C. 20. There is the same exaggerated flattery of Augustus here as in other Augustan writers in dealing with this incident.

"Cum cecidit fato consul uterque pari."

The year B.C. 43 when the consuls Hirtius and Pansa both lost their lives in raising the siege of Mutina, in which town Decimus "Obsessae mœnia pacem Victa petent Mutinae."

JUVENAL, b. A.D. 67, d. circ. A.D. 147.

"Hic novus Arpinas, ignobilis, et modo Romae, Municipalis eques," viii, 237.

Cicero was a native of Arpinum in Latium; a 'novus homo,' being the first of the 'gens Tullia' who bore curule honours; was Consul in 63 when he suppressed Catiline's conspiracy. Cicero was of equestrian rank; Arpinum was a 'municipium.'

"Arpinas alius Volscorum in monte solebat Poscere mercedes alieno lassus aratro," viii, 245,

C. Marius also born at Arpinum; of humble origin; entered the army, and rose to be consul seven times; also a 'novus homo.'

"Hic tamen et Cimbros et summa pericula rerum Excipit, et solus trepidantem protegit urbem," viii. 249.

In 102 Marius defeated the Teutones at Aquae Sextiae; in 101 annihilated the Cimbri at Vercellae on the Raudine plain with the aid of Catulus. Several Roman generals had previously been defeated, and a feeling of panic was spreading through Italy.

"O fortunatam natam me consule Romam! Antoni gladios potuit contemnere, si sic Omnia dixisset," x. 122.

If Cicero's oratory had been as bad as his poetry, from which the first line here is a quotation, he would not have incurred Antony's hatred; as it was, his eloquence (cf. the Philippic orations, especially the 2nd) was his undoing; was killed in Antony's proscription, B.C. 43.

"A Capreis . . . verbosa et grandis epistola," x. 67, 71.

The letter sent by Tiberius to the Senate, disgracing Sejanus A.D.
31.

"O qualis facies et quali digna tabella,

Cum Gaetula ducem portaret bellua luscum," x. 157.

Hannibal, riding on the sole remaining elephant, through the marshes south of the Po, lost an eye from ophthalmia.

"Cannarum vindex et tanti sanguinis ultor Annulus," x. 165.

Hannibal, when unable to elude Roman hostility any longer, took poison which he carried in a ring, about B.C. 183.

"Exsilium, et carcer, Minturnarumque paludes, Et mendicatus victa Carthagine panis," x. 277.

In B.C. 88 C. Marius had to fly from Sulla; in his flight he tried to hide in a marsh near Minturnae; was caught and imprisoned, but allowed to escape; he fled to the ruins of Carthage, utterly destitute,

"Provida Pompeio dederat Campania febres Optandas," x. 283.

In B.C. 50 Pompey, then at the height of his power, fell seriously ill at Naples; better if he had died than recovered, only to be murdered two years later on landing in Egypt after his defeat at Pharsalus.

"Unus Pellæo juveni non sufficit orbis," x. 167.

Alexander the Great, "the youth of Pella," is said to have expressed regret that there were no more worlds to conquer.

LUCAN, b. A.D. 39, d. A.D. 65.

"Victrix causa deis placuit, sed victa Catoni," i. 128. Suicide of Cato at Utica after defeat at Thapsus B.C. 46.

"Et victis cedat piratica laurea Gallis," i. 122.

The fame of Pompey the Great for his speedy suppression of the pirates in 67 must give way to Cæsar's reputation made by the conquest of Gaul, 58-51.

"Perusina fames Mutinæque labores," i. 41.

Outbreak of Perusine war in 41; Perusia was starved into surrender by Octavian, 40. Siege of Mutina by Antony, raised by the consuls Hirtius and Pansa who lost their lives however, 43. Both sieges were attended with fearful sufferings.

"Exul limosa Marius caput abdidit ulva," ii. 70. Marius hiding in the marshes of river Liris near Minturnæ.

" Jam quot apud Sacri cecidere cadavera portum Aut Collina tulit stratas quot porta catervas," ii. 134.

Sacriportus was a small town in Latium, at which Sulla defeated the younger Marius in B.C. 82; in the same year Sulla and M. Crassus annihilated the Samnites, 40,000 strong, who had marched on Rome, at the Colline Gate, after very severe fighting.

> " Magno proles indigna parente Polluit aequoreos Siculus pirata triumphos," vi. 420.

Sextus Pompeius, the son of Pompey the Great, held the sea long after resistance on land had ceased; reduced Rome to a state of famine, and so forced the triumvirs to come to terms with him; but broke his part of the bargain arranged at Conference of Misenum in 39, and henceforth became little better than a pirate or buccaneer; the scene of his operations was chiefly Sicily and the adjoining coasts; finally defeated by Agrippa at Naulochus in 36.

" Major Carthaginis hostis Non servituri mæret Cato fata nepotis," vi. 789.

Cato Major, the censor, had been mainly instrumental in procuring the destruction of Carthage by his incessant warning, "Delenda est Carthago"; Cato the younger, his grandson, 'Uticensis,' could not bring himself to surrender to J. Cæsar after the defeat of the Pompeians at Thapsus in 46, and committed suicide in preference.

ROMAN SYSTEM OF PERSONAL NAMES.

Originally every Roman citizen belonged to a 'gens' or clan, from which he took a name ('nomen gentilicium'), generally ending in -ius, e.g., Fabius. Besides this, every Roman had a 'prænomen,' preceding this, peculiar to him as an individual, e.g., Marcus, Sextus. These two names were sufficient, and many Romans, especially plebeians, had no more, e.g., C. Marius; but as the clans often contained a large number of 'familiæ' or separate households, it was found more convenient in such cases for a man to have a third name, 'cognomen' or family name. These 'cognomina' were either in the nature of nicknames from some bodily or mental peculiarity, e.g., Verrucosus, Cicero, Ovicula, Brutus; or honorary titles from some remarkable event or exploit in the life of the founder of the 'familia,' e.g., Magnus, Torquatus, Africanus. Many Romans had more than one cognomen; these additional names are all known as 'agnomina.'

E.g., Quintus Fabius Maximus Verrucosus Ovicula Cunctator. Here Quintus is prænomen; Fabius, nomen; Maximus, cognomen; while Verrucosus, i.e., 'warty,' Ovicula, i.e., of lamb-like disposition, Cunctator, i.e., 'the loiterer' (from his tactics against Hannibal), are further 'agnomina' 'Cognomina' were often hereditary, though

sometimes they died with the individual.

N.B.—(1) In cases of adoption, the adopted person assumed the names and titles of his adoptive father, and, to show his adoption, added the name of his former 'gens,' with the adjectival termination -anus, e.g., the son of Æmilius Paullus when adopted by P. Cornelius Scipio became Publius Cornelius Scipio Æmilianus; to this was added the family title 'Africanus' + minor to distinguish him from the victor of Zama, + 'Numantinus' after his own victory at Numantia. (2) Slaves had only one name; if set free, they received the prænomen' and 'nomen' of their master as well, e.g., Marcus Tullius Tiro—(Tiro had been a slave of M. Tullius Cicero). (3) Women, as a rule, had no 'prænomen,' but were called by the feminine of the gentile nomen, e.g., Cornelia, Sempronia.

ABBREVIATIONS USED BY THE ROMANS.

I. Prænomina.—A. = Aulus; C. = Gaius; Cn. = Gnæus; D. = Decimus; L.=Lucius; M.=Marcus; M.=Manius; P.=Publius; Q. = Quintus; S. = Sextus; Sp. = Spurius; T. = Titus; Ti. = Tiberius. N.B.—Women's names are expressed by inverted characters, e.g.,

O. = Gaia.

II. Titles, etc.—Cos. = Consul; Coss. = Consules; F. = Filius; Imp. = Imperator; P.C. = Patres conscripti; S.P.Q.R. = Senatus populusque Romanus.

III. Sepulchral. - D.M.S. = dis manibus sacrum; F.C. = faciendum

curavit.

IV. Miscellaneous.—N.L. = non liquet (in voting on trials); V.R. =uti rogas (in voting on laws); S.D.=salutem dicit; S.P.D.=salutem plurimam dicit; S.V.B.E.E.V.=si vales, bene est: ego valeo (these three last at beginning of correspondence); S.C. = senatus consultum; I.N.=intercessit nemo; P.P.=pater patriæ; A.U.C.= anno urbis conditæ; D.D.D. = dat, dicat, dedicat; D.D. = dono dedit; F.F.F. = felix, faustum, fortunatum; H.S. (for I.I.S., i.e., duo + semis) = sestertina

THE ROMAN CALENDAR.

I. The Roman year originally began with March, but after B.C. 153 the Consuls, by whose names the year was designated, entered office in January; henceforth January becomes the first month.

II. Reform of the Calendar by J. Cæsar. In B.C. 46 he introduced two intercalary months, containing 67 days, in order to bring it into accord with the solar year; a mistake was made at first by taking a leap-year in every three years, but remedied by Augustus in A.D. 4. N.B.—The Julian year, being 11 min, 12 sec. too long, had in 1582 amounted to an error of 10 days, which was rectified by Pope Gregory XIII.

III. The foundation of Rome, as calculated by Varro, took place

in B.C. 753, but owing to an error the Christian Era is four years wrong, the birth of Christ being really B.C. 4.

IV. Dies nefasti, days on which the prætor did not administer justice, e.g., the anniversary of the Allia disaster.

Nundinæ, market days, occurring every eight days.

Feriæ, holidays and festivals, e.g., feriæ Latinæ, the date of which was annually announced by the Consuls; the Saturnalia, always on Dec. 17th, etc.

Dies bissextus, the 24th February (vi Kal. Mart.) was taken twice in a leap-year.

V. The month had three divisions, viz., Kalendæ the 1st, Nones 5th, Ides 13th, except in March, May, July, October, when the Nones were on the 7th and the Ides on 15th.

VI. July and August, so called after Julius Cæsar and Augustus, were previously Quintilis and Sextilis, i.e., 5th and 6th months in the old calendar.

HORACE'S DESCRIPTION OF A DAY OF HIS LIFE IN ROME (B.C. 65-8).

"Fallacem circum vespertinumque pererro
Sæpe forum; adsisto divinis; inde domum me
Ad porri et ciceris refero laganique catinum.
Deinde eo dormitum, non sollicitus, mihi quod cras
Surgendum sit mane.
Ad quartam jaceo; post hanc vagor; aut ego lecto
Aut scripto, quod me tacitum juvet, ungor olivo.
Ast ubi me fessum sol acrior ire lavatum
Admonuit, fugio campum lusumque trigonem.
Pransus non avide, . . . domesticus otior."

—Sat., I. vi. 113.

MARTIAL'S DESCRIPTION OF A DAY IN ROME (A.D. 43-102).

"Prima salutantes atque altera conteret hora,
Exercet raucos tertia causidicos:
In quintam varios extendit Roma labores,
Sexta quies lassis, septima finis erit:
Sufficit in nonam nitidis octava palæstris,
Imperat exstructos frangere nona toros:
Hora libellorum decima est."

EDUCATION.

Elementary schools, 'ludi litterarum,' for both boys and girls, existed at Rome from very early times. Reading, writing, and arithmetic were at first the only subjects taught, though, before the close of the republic, a familiar knowledge of Greek was considered indispensable to every one in the upper ranks. In the age of Cicero and for some centuries later a complete course of study consisted of. at least, three parts, in the following order:-(1) Reading, writing, and arithmetic, taught by the 'ludi magister'; (2) a critical knowledge of Greek and Latin, taught by a 'grammaticus'; (3) composition and oratory, taught by a 'rhetor Latinus.' To this was sometimes added a course of moral and metaphysical philosophy, to acquire which it was usual to resort to Athens or some other famous foreign seat of learning, as to a University. Wealthy Romans had educated slaves as tutors to their children, 'pædagogi,' who first taught the rudiments, and then accompanied the children to and from school; while others procured the services of 'grammatistæ.' 'rhetores,' and 'philosophi' to superintend the training of their sons at home.

SLAVES.

Persons might become slaves in three ways, (1) by birth, i.e., if the child of a female slave; (2) by captivity, i.e., prisoners of war, who were sold 'sub coronâ'; (3) by judicial sentence, as a punishment for heinous offences.

A slave had no personal nor political rights; his master could punish, torture, and kill him at his pleasure; and it was not until the reign of Hadrian that putting a slave to death was prohibited. A slave could not contract a regular marriage; any alliance he might form was termed 'contubernium,' and the offspring of it, 'vernæ.' Injuries to a slave were regarded merely as injuries to his master's property. No slave could acquire property independent of his master, though he was, in practice, generally allowed to have a small private hoard ('peculium'). Slave-dealing, towards the close of the Republic. assumed gigantic proportions, e.g., 10,000 slaves were sold on one day in the market at Delos; it was a very lucrative trade, carried on by persons called 'mangones,' who sold their more valuable stock in private shops ('tabernæ'), often for very large sums, e.g., £800 and £900 for a single slave, but the commoner class by auction in the open market. A seller had to describe his goods and give a warranty. Slaves newly imported had their feet chalked ('gypsati' or 'cretati'), when exposed naked for sale,

In early times, when agricultural labourers were still free men, and ordinary trades were plied by citizens, the number of slaves was not very great; but as slave-labour ousted free, and the supply of slaves kept pace with Rome's increasing foreign conquest, an enormous influx took place, till at last it came to be thought mean and discreditable to keep only a scanty establishment of them. The household ('familia') of any rich Roman at the close of the Republic contained several hundred, and there are cases cited where as many as 4000 were owned by one master.

Rations ('demensum') of a meagre kind were served out to them either daily or monthly ('diarium' or 'menstruum'); yet some contrived to save a portion even of this and so accumulate a 'peculium,' with which to purchase freedom. The lot of a country slave was, as a rule, even harder than that of one in Rome, his rations being less and the conditions of his life more intolerable.

As to their punishments, these depended entirely on their master's caprice: the commonest was the lash, most brutally inflicted and often for the most trivial offences; branding in the case of runaways; the heavy collar of wood ('furca'); crucifixion.

No evidence was accepted as valid from slaves except under torture, and in case of a master being murdered, the whole body of his slaves were liable to be put to death. Nowhere perhaps is the inherent brutality of the Roman character more terribly shown than in their treatment of those who ministered to their comfort and amusement; no wonder, then, that the vast hordes of 'servi' were a constant menace to the State, e.g., the Slave wars in Sicily, 135 and 103, and the rising of Spartacus in Italy, 73.

A ROMAN HOUSE.

The following remarks apply strictly to a house of ordinary size in the first century A.D.; our chief source of information being the excavated city of Pompeii, which was overwhelmed by the great eruption of Vesuvius in A.D. 79.

I. The 'atrium,' the chief room, and originally perhaps the only room of the house, a large chamber open in the centre to the sky; through this opening in the roof ('compluvium') light was admitted, and rain also, which was caught in a tank beneath ('impluvium'); round the 'atrium' were subsequently built small rooms for sleeping ('cubicula'), store-chambers ('cellæ'), and the like. A passage led from the 'atrium' through a door ('ostium' or 'janua') into the 'vesti-bulum' or entrance-court, and so into the street.

II. The 'tablinum' opened out of the 'atrium,' from which it was not separated by any door; this was the private room of the master of the house, in which he kept his papers ('tabulæ') and his money, and from which he could command a view of the whole house.

III. The 'peristylium,' a walled court or garden, surrounded by pillars, lay behind the 'tablinum,' with which it was connected by two narrow passages ('fauces'). In the larger houses, further small chambers were built round this court, and in some cases a second 'peristylium' opened out of the first.

IV. The 'triclinium' or dining-room was a later addition, and lay, as a rule, to one side of the 'tablinum,' but in large houses there were often distinct 'triclinia' for different seasons of the year.

N.B.-(1) Other terms connected with large houses are 'oeci,' larger saloons of various styles of architecture, used sometimes as 'triclinia': 'pinacotheca,' picture-gallery; 'culina,' the kitchen; 'pistrinum,' the bake-house and mill; 'coenacula,' apartments above the ground-floor (not universal); 'tabulata,' stories of a house; 'lacunaria,' wainscoted ceilings with sunken panels, often gilded; 'aulma,' curtains for doorways; 'fenestræ,' windows (only in the upper stories), secured by gratings or shutters; 'pavimentum,' a hard floor of pounded rubble; mosaic afterwards took its place. (2) The exterior of a Roman house must have been somewhat bare and paltry, owing to its lowness, the fewness of the windows, and the irregularity of the building, especially in its upper part; the interior, on the contrary, was often very magnificent, with its varied frescoes, marble columns, fountains, trees and pleasure-grounds, all of which might be taken in at a glance from the 'ostium,' supposing the several doors and curtains to be thrown back.

SOME TERMS CONNECTED WITH DRESS.

I. OF MEN.

cucullus, a cap, hood, or cowl, fastened to a cloak.

lacerna, a large cloak worn on journeys, or in damp and cold weather.

læna, a lined upper garment, cloak, mantle.

pænula, a large woollen cloak, or mantle for travelling or bad weather.

pallium, a Greek cloak or mantle, only worn by Romans when residing amongst Greeks, or by actors when depicting Greek characters.

paludamentum, general's military cloak.

sagum, the soldier's cloak.

subligacula, short drawers.

subucula, a close-fitting vest or shirt; worn apparently by both sexes.

synthesis, a loose easy garment, often of bright colours, worn over the tunic at dinner; a kind of dressing-gown.

syrma, a robe with a train, worn by tragic actors.

toga, the outer garment of a Roman citizen in time of peace, a long flowing gown, consisting of one piece of stuff.

trabea, a robe of state worn by augurs, kings, knights, etc.
tunica, a close-fitting under garment; shirt; worn by both
sexes.

II. OF WOMEN.

fascia = a close-fitting vest.

instita = a flounce or hem at the bottom of the tunic.

palla = a long and wide upper garment, fastened with brooches,
 the usual out-of-doors wrap.

stola = a long upper garment or gown reaching from the neck to the ankles.

N.B.—(1) Boots: calcei, shoes or boots for walking; caliga, hobnailed soldier's boot; cothurnus, a high laced boot, worn by hunters, horsemen, tragic actors; mulleus, red or purple shoe worn by highest magistrates; pero, a boot of raw hide, worn by rustics; soless, sandals, slippers.

(2) HATS: causia, a white hat with broad brim; petasus, a travelling hat or cap with broad brim; pileus or pilleus, a felt cap,

close-fitting, like the half of an egg.

AMUSEMENTS.

Amongst games of chance, we find that dice always took a prominent place. These were of two kinds—(1) 'tesseræ,' cubes like modern dice; (2) 'tali,' oblong and marked on four sides only Both were thrown from a cylindrical box, called 'fritillus' or 'phimus,' on to a board called 'abacus' or 'alveus.' The best throw was 'Venus'; the worst, 'canis.'

Playing for money ('alea') was forbidden by law, except at the Saturnalia; but evidently much indulged in, and for very large amounts.

Other games of a more innocent nature were 'latrunculi' and

'ludus duodecim scriptorum,' which have been aptly compared to

chess and draughts or backgammon respectively.

Lastly, the games of 'odd and even' ('ludere par impar'), i.e., guessing whether objects concealed in an adversary's hand were odd or even; of 'pitch and toss' ('capita aut navim'), i.e., 'heads or tails'; and of 'micare digitis,' i.e., guessing how many fingers were momentarily held up, were in vogue amongst all classes.

N.B.—To these may be added the public games, which engrossed so much of a Roman's time in the days of Rome's decline, 'ludi circenses': games of the circus, e.g., horse and chariot races: (2) 'ludi scenici,' theatrical entertainments; (3) gladiatorial shows in the

amphitheatre, and afterwards in the Colosseum,

ROMAN ATHLETICS.

Gymnastic exercises were not confined among the Romans to the period of youth; in fact, daily 'exercitatio' of some kind was regarded as necessary even for old men before the bath. Perhaps the favourite game for young and old alike was that of ball, of which there were numerous varieties, e.g., 'pila,' 'follis,' 'trigon,' 'paganica,' etc., according to the size of the ball used; throwing, catching, striking with the hand or arm seem to have been the methods employed; it is clear that none of the balls were very hard. The game of 'trigon' was played by three players standing in a triangle; experts used only the left hand in catching and throwing. A more boisterous game, also played with a ball, was 'harpastum'; here apparently there was a general scrimmage for the possession of one ball thrown amongst a number of players. Other varieties were played with several balls at once and by numerous players.

Another exercise was the swinging of the 'halteres,' weights which were held in the hands in leaping; a kind of dumb-bells, and

similarly used.

A third amusement was the sham fight with the 'palus,' a post fixed in the ground, against which athletes fought with wooden sword and shield, in order to learn the use of their weapons.

Besides these, wrestling, boxing, hurling the heavy 'discus,' a kind

of very large quoit, were freely engaged in, especially in the public baths. The game of 'trochus,' a hoop to trundle, was also borrowed from the Greeks, but was regarded as rather effeminate.

Running and leaping were common exercises, but were not regarded as severe enough by themselves, save for the elderly and weakly, who sometimes restricted themselves to riding or carriage-exercise and walking.

To practise these gymnastics, many rich men had a gymnasium, 'sphæristerium,' fitted up in their own houses; while there were similar appliances at the public baths. Many of the above exercises also took place on the Campus Martius, to be followed, in the case of younger men at any rate, by a swim in the Tiber, in preference to visiting the bathing establishments.

CARRIAGES.

biga, a two-horsed chariot.

carpentum, a two-wheeled covered carriage, especially used in town and by women.

carruca, a sort of four-wheeled travelling and state coach (not before the Empire).

carrus, a kind of two-wheeled waggon for transporting burdens.

cisium, a light two-wheeled vehicle, a cabriolet.

covinus, (1) a war chariot of the Britons and Belgæ. (2) a travelling chariot, a kind of tilbury.

currus, chariot, car, wain.

essedum, a two-wheeled war chariot of the Gauls and Britons.

petorritum, an open four-wheeled carriage of Gallic origin.

pilentum, an easy chariot or carriage, used by Roman ladies and also in sacred processions.

quadriga, a four-horsed chariot, four-in-hand.

ræda or reda, a travelling carriage or waggon with four wheels. triga, a chariot drawn by three horses.

vehiculum, waggon, cart, carriage.

PRINCIPAL PLACES OF INTEREST IN AND NEAR ANCIENT ROME.

Ædes Vestæ, on the south side of the Comitium, opposite to the Curia; the most holy of all Roman shrines; here was kept the 'Palladium,' and here the Vestal Virgins, who lived within its precincts, kept alight the eternal fire of Vesta ('Vesta æterna').

Aqua Appia, an aqueduct built by Appius Claudius in B.C. 312, to supply Rome with water, by means of an artificial underground channel nearly 11 miles long, terminating between the 'Porta

Capena' and the 'clivus Publicius.'

Aqua Virgo, an aqueduct built by Vipsanius Agrippa in B.C. 19; 14 miles in length; entered Rome near the Pincian hill and was conveyed upon arches into the Campus Martius. N.B.—In the time of Frontinus, an engineer who describes these works and who died A.D. 103, there were nine such 'ductus'; one or two more were subsequently added.

Argiletum (i.e. 'the clay-field'), in the 'vicus Tuscus,' between the 'circus maximus' and 'mons Aventinus,' where handicraftsmen and

booksellers traded.

Aventinus, one of the seven hills of Rome, extending from the Palatine to the Cælian mount; almost touching the Tiber; chiefly inhabited by plebeians; approached by the 'clivus Publicius.'

Basilicæ, covered porticos in which people assembled to transact business, especially the business of the law-courts; built to secure additional accommodation, as the space in the Forum grew too limited; the best known are the 'basilica Porcia,' built by Cato the Censor in 184, burnt down in 52; and the 'basilica Julia,' built by J. Cæsar in 46, also burnt down, but rebuilt by Augustus.

Campus Martius, an alluvial meadow of some 300 acres in an angle of the Tiber; here the 'comitia centuriata' met, and here most of the sports and pastimes of the Romans were carried on; a

great portion of the modern city of Rome is built upon it.

Capitolinus, a small hill at the southern extremity of the 'Campus Martius,' close to the Tiber. The Capitolinus had two summits, on one of which stood the citadel ('arx'); on the other, the great national temple ('Capitolium'), dedicated to Jupiter Optimus

Maximus conjointly with Juno and Minerva; approached by the 'clivus Capitolinus.'

Carinæ, the most fashionable quarter in Rome towards the close of the Republic, between the Cælian and Esquiline hills; the temple of 'Tellus' was situated here; here was Pompey's house; and here, too, the baths of Titus ('thermæ Titi').

Circus Maximus, an oval circus built by Tarquinius Priscus between the Palatine and Aventine, capable of holding more than 100,000 spectators; it was surrounded by galleries three stories high and a canal called Euripus. Through its whole length, in the middle, a wall 4 feet high and about 12 broad was built, called 'spina,' at the ends of which there were three columns on one base ('meta'), around which competitors had to pass seven times. Round about the 'circus' was a favourite haunt of jugglers, soothsayers, and the like. Besides the 'circus maximus,' there were others at Rome, e.g., 'circus Flaminius,' 'circus Vaticanus,' etc.

Cloaca Maxima, a huge vaulted drain in Rome, constructed by Tarquinius Priscus, by which the filth from the streets was carried away into the Tiber, and the low swampy ground also was drained; much of it still survives.

Colosseum, the most stupendous and imposing of all ancient ruins; erected in the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian; capable of holding 90,000 spectators; used for every sort of public show, especially gladiatorial combats and wild-beast shows, even sham naval battles; stood in the hollow between the Cælian and Esquiline on the site of Nero's 'aurea domus.'

Comitium, the place of assembly; situated in or near the Forum, from which it was only separated by the ancient 'Rostra'; sometimes regarded as part of the Forum, of which it formed about one-fourth.

Curia, Senate-house; (1) the Curia Hostilia, facing the Comitium on the north side, opposite the 'Rostra'; built by Tullus Hostilius; this is what is usually meant by the word; (2) the Curia Julia, used by the Senate after the burning of the Curia Hostilia; (3) the Curia Pompeia, built by Pompey, but finally closed after the assassination of J. Cæsar in it.

Esquiliæ, the largest in extent of the seven hills of Rome, though really only one of the four main irregular projections in the table-land of the Campagna, with several separate heights; in earlier times the poor were buried here, and there were no public buildings

of importance upon it till the time of Augustus, when Mæcenas erected a splendid palace here and laid out the hill in gardens.

Forum, i.e. 'Romanum' or 'magnum,' a low, open artificial level, about 630 feet long, and rather more than 100 wide, between the Capitoline and Palatine hills, surrounded by 'basilicæ' and the shops of the 'argentarii'; in later times, too, with many fine buildings and countless statues; this was the principal place of meeting, where public affairs were discussed, courts of justice held, money transactions carried on, etc. N.B.—There were numerous other 'fora' for special purposes, e.g., 'forum olitorium,' the vegetable market; 'forum boarium,' the cattle market, etc. etc.

Insula Tiberina, an island formed by two branches of the river, nearly opposite the base of the Capitoline; regarded as holy, and crowded with temples, e.g. of Æsculapius, Faunus, etc.

Janiculum, a long ridge about 300 feet above the sea, on the western bank of the Tiber; it was fortified with a wall, and connected with the city by the 'pons Sublicius,' though not originally included in the city limits.

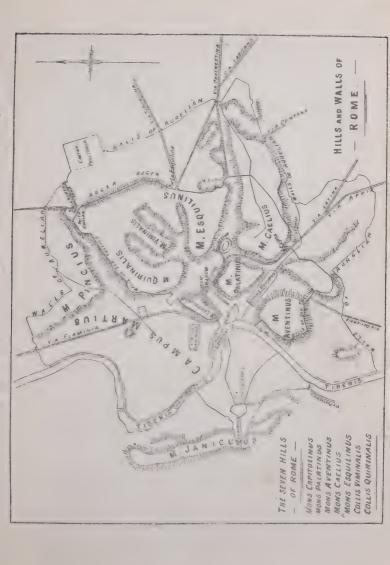
Janus, four arched passages in the Roman Forum, where merchants and money-changers congregated, were called 'Jani.' N.B.—The temple of Janus stood in the Forum; a small building with two doors opposite to each other, which in time of war stood open but in time of peace were closed.

Lautumiæ (i.e. stone-quarries), in the neighbourhood of the Argiletum; one of the State prisons was situated here.

Meta sudans, close to the Colosseum; a conical stone pillar from which water, rising out of a copious spring, overflowed into a basin below.

Milliarium aureum, a gilded pillar set up in the Forum by Augustus as the termination of all military roads; on it were inscribed the distances to the most important points from the several gates; it stood at the foot of the slope leading up to the Capitoline.

Palatinus, at the southern extremity of the Campus Martius, to the south of the Capitoline; the first of the seven hills of Rome that was built upon; here were many objects connected with the earliest traditions, e.g., the Lupercal, or cave of Lupercus; the 'ficus Ruminalis'; the 'casa Romuli'; the temple of 'Jupiter Stator,' etc. In later times, many of the noblest buildings of Rome stood here, e.g., the temple of Apollo, erected by Augustus after Actium;



here, too, the Emperors fixed their residence, and 'Palatium' came to denote the imperial abode.

Pomœrium, an open space, left free from buildings, on both sides of the city wall; this was increased on several occasions, as the

population grew.

Pons Sublicius, a wooden bridge supported on piles, built by Ancus Martius, when he fortified the Janiculum and connected it by this bridge with the city. N.B.—There seem to have been only three bridges erected before the end of the Republic, though subsequently there were at least eight.

Porta Capena, in the hollow between the Cælian and the Aven-

tine; here the Via Appia began.

Porta Collina, at the N.W. of the agger, the most northern point of the fortifications. N.B.—The number of gates is not accurately known; no doubt it varied at different times; Pliny asserts that there were thirty-seven in Vespasian's reign.

Puteal, a spot in the Comitium, close to the tribunal; surrounded with a stone coping like a well; a famous rendezvous for business men, especially money-changers; known often as 'puteal Libonis,' after one Libo who restored it.

Rostra, a stage or platform for speakers between the Comitium and lower Forum, adorned with the beaks of ships taken from the people of Antium, B.C. 338. N.B.—The 'rostra' was moved either in time of J. Cæsar or Augustus to the south side of the lower Forum.

Rostrata columna, a column erected in the Forum, to commemorate the naval victory of Duilius in 1st Punic war at Mylæ, B.C. 260; it was adorned with the beaks ('rostra') of the conquered vessels.

Sacer mons, a hill about 3 miles from Rome, beyond the Anio, and on the right of the 'Via Nomentana.'

Scalæ Gemoniæ, steps on the Aventine, leading to the Tiber, to which the bodies of executed criminals were dragged by hooks to be thrown into the Tiber.

Subura, the low quarter of Rome, very thickly populated, lying between the Esquiline, Viminal, and Quirinal; a haunt of the worst characters.

Titi arcus, at the top of the Velia and highest point of the 'Via sacra' stood, and still stands the triumphal arch of Titus, erected to commemorate the capture of Jerusalem.

Trajani forum, to the N.E. of the Forum Romanum, immediately

under the Quirinal, vast masses of this hill having been cut away to enlarge the area; by far the most magnificent of all the 'fora'; the famous 'columna Trajani' with bas reliefs commemorating the Emperor's victories over the Dacians and Parthians is still standing.

Tribunal, on the Comitium, at the extremity most remote from the Capitoline; a raised platform, where the 'prætor urbanus' sat to administer justice; towards the close of the Republic, other 'tribunalia' were established to meet the increase of legal business.

Tullianum, the dungeon added to the state-prison in Rome by Servius Tullius; at the foot of the Capitoline.

Velabrum, a low-lying district, frequently flooded; between the 'Vicus Tuscus' and the 'Forum Boarium.'

Velia, a ridge of the Palatine extending to the 'Carinæ.'

Via Appia, from the 'porta Capena' to Capua, Beneventum, and Brundisium: the great south road.

Via Sacra, leading from the Forum to the Capitol by the 'clivus Capitolinus'; along it passed all triumphal processions; apparently it began where the arch of Constantine now stands,

Vicus Tuscus, so called from a Tuscan settlement; a street running between the Capitoline and Palatine, connecting the Forum with the Circus Maximus

PRINCIPAL CLASSICAL LATIN AUTHORS.

I. PRE-CICERONIAN PERIOD.

Previous to B.C. 240 Roman literature is represented merely by inscriptions, laws, crude annals, with fragments of ritual songs and coarse farces. Livius Andronicus (died 204), who wrote dramas for the stage, may be regarded as the first author. He was succeeded by a numerous band, e.g., Cn. Nævius flourished about B.C. 235; of his dramatic and epic poems only fragments remain; Q. Ennius, B.C. 239-169, the father of Roman epic poetry; his great work was the Annales, a national epic in eighteen books on Rome's history, from its earliest beginning to the year 172; of this only a few hundred lines are extant; M. Porcius Cato, the censor, 234-149, a very voluminous writer, who may be regarded as the earliest Roman prose author; history, speeches, and a treatise De Re Rustica, which latter alone is extant in full; some fragments of his Origines, the earliest history of Rome; C. Lucilius, 148–103; writer of satires; only fragments; imitated by Horace; T. Maccius Plautus, 254–184; twenty comedies extant, e.g., 'Amphitruo,' 'Asinaria,' 'Captivi,' 'Menæchmi,' 'Miles Gloriosus,' 'Mostellaria,' 'Rudens,' 'Trinummus,' etc., entirely derived from Greek sources ('fabulæ palliate'), as regards the form, though the spirit is essentially Roman; rough and vigorous; P. Terentius Afer, 185–159; six comedies, also 'fabulæ palliatæ,' viz., 'Adelphi,' 'Andria,' 'Eunuchus,' 'Heautontimorumenos,' 'Hecyra,' 'Phormio'; marked by grace and purity of diction; more artistic and refined, but far less lively than Plautus; never popular except with men of education and taste.

II. THE CICERONIAN PERIOD. ('The Golden Age' begins.)

M. Terentius Varro, 116–27 B.C., the most voluminous and varied of Roman writers; (1) Satura Menippea, a medley of prose and verse on every sort of subject, 150 books; (2) works on antiquities; (3) on grammar, e.g., 25 books, De Lingua Latina, of which v.-x. are extant; (4) Imagines or Hebdomades, a gallery of Greek and Roman celebrities; (5) De Re Rustica, in three books, extant; style most uncouth; a master of facts, not of words.

M. Tullius Cicero,—106-43; speeches, treatises on rhetoric and philosophy, and private letters; of these, 57 speeches are still extant, e.g., the Actio in Verrem; four against Catiline; the 14 Philippic orations against Antony; the Pro Murena, Pro Milone, etc.; most of his treatises still remain, e.g. (rhetorical), De Oratore, De Republica, etc. (philosophical), Academica, De Finibus, Tusculanæ Disputationes, De Natura Deorum, De Officiis, De Amicitia, De Senectute, etc.; also a very large number of letters, 16 books, Ad Atticum, Ad Quintum Fratrem, and 16 books more of mixed correspondence.

C. Julius Casar, 100-44; speeches and history; his Commentarii De Bello Gallico, in eight books (the eighth being by Aulus Hirtius, who also compiled the Bellum Alexandrinum), and De Bello Civili, in three books, are extant.

N.B.—The works Bellum Africanum and Bellum Hispaniense may have been compiled from Cæsar's memoranda, but are certainly not by his hand.

Cornelius Nepos flourished about 44 B.C.; history in the form of

biographies; possibly the extant remains are only an abridgment of his once famous work.

- T. Lucretius Carus, 90-55; a philosophical poem, *De Rerum Natura*, in six books, extant; an exposition of Epicurean doctrines; the greatest poem of its kind in any language, evidently deeply studied by Vergil.
- C. Valerius Catullus, 87-54; poems, lyrical, epic, and occasional; the first Roman lyric poet; easy, graceful, and finished; shows a marked advance over his predecessors in his mastery of the resources of the Latin language; great artistic and dramatic power, e.g., in his wonderful poem Attis.
- C. Sallustius Crispus, 86-35; the first important Roman historian; his extant works are his historical essays, Catalina and Bellum Jugurthinum, with some fragments from other similar histories; the first Roman writer who wrote history as opposed to mere chronicles, and the first with any real pretensions to literary style.

III. THE AUGUSTAN AGE. ('The Golden Age' continued.)

P. Vergilius Maro, 70-19 B.c.; (1) Bucolics or Eclogues, pastoral poems in which the idylls of Theocritus served him for a model; (2) four books of the Georgics, didactic poems on all matters relating to agriculture and country pursuits; perhaps suggested by his patron Mæcenas, as an attempt, by means of poetry, to put an end to the general neglect of agriculture throughout Italy; (3) the Æneid, an unfinished work in 12 books, in which the growth of Rome's greatness is traced till it culminates in the glorious world-empire of Augustus; the great national epic of Rome; incomparable in diction and metre; musical and majestic.

N.B.—Certain minor poems are attributed to Vergil, partly satirical, e.g., the Culex, Ciris, Copa, Moretum, etc.

- Q. Horatius Flaccus, 65–8 B.C.; (1) four books of Odes, lyrical; (2) a book of Epodes, satirical; (3) two books of Satires, many of which are rather humorous than satirical; (4) two books of Epistles and the Ars Poetica; these latter deal with a variety of topics, and contain, inter alia (especially the Ars Poetica), rules for poetical composition and criticisms on previous writers; nothing so perfect as the first three books of Odes, or so delightful as the first book of Epistles, in the whole range of Latin literature.
 - T. Livius Patavinus, B.C. 59-A.D. 16; a history of Rome from

its foundation to the death of Drusus in B.C. 9, in 142 books, of which 35 are extant, viz., 1-10 and 20-45, with a few fragments; inimitable as regards style, but careless and unscientific as history from a modern point of view.

Albius Tibullus, about 54-14 B.C.; poems, chiefly amatory, in the elegiac metre; delicate and refined in thought and language.

Sextus Propertius, about 49-16 B.C.; elegiac poems, chiefly amatory; a genius spoilt by excess of erudition, though without a Roman rival in this particular field, when at his best.

P. Ovidius Naso, B.C. 43—A.D. 17, (1) earlier amatory poems, e.g., Ars Amatoria, Amores, Heroides, etc., (2) antiquarian, e.g., the Fasti, a poetical calendar; (3) mythological, e.g., the Metamorphoses or Transformations, 15 books in hexameters; (4) the poems of his exile at Tomi, e.g., the Tristia, in five books, the Epistolæ Ex Ponto, in four books; all these and some other minor works are extant; a tragedy, the Medea, once famous, is lost. A brilliant fancy, with no great depth of thought, characterises Ovid; a marvellous ingenuity in the manipulation of words, and a complete mastery of the elegiac metre; but his later works are marked by a wearisome monotony and bewailing of his fate, though the versification is still as graceful and perfect as ever.

IV. THE SILVER AGE.

L. Annæus Seneca (the younger), about B.C. 4-A.D. 65; (1) numerous philosophical works, e.g., De Beneficiis, De Clementia, De Vita Beata, etc., (2) tragedies, e.g., Agamemnon, Hercules Fureus, Medea, etc., (3) 20 books of letters to his friend Lucilius, (4) the Apocolocyntosis, a satire on the Emperor Claudius, a medley in prose and verse.

A. Persius Flaccus, A.D. 34-62; six satires; a close verbal imitator of Horace; very obscure; a student without any real experience of life.

- M. Annæus Lucanus, A.D. 39-65; epic poem, *The Pharsalia*, on the Civil war between Cresar and Pompey, in 10 books, incomplete; some magnificent passages, but, as a whole, tedious, prolix, and overrhetorical.
- C. Plinius Secundus (the elder), A.D. 23-79; history, grammar, and natural history; his *Historia Naturalis* in 37 books is extant.
- C. Silius Italicus, A.D. 25-101; an epic in 17 books on 2nd Punic War, Punica; a slavish imitator of Vergil's metre and diction; dull and uninspired.

Papinius Statius, about A.D. 45-96; (1) Epics, Thebais in 12 books; an unfinished Achilleis; (2) miscellaneous poems in five books; Silvæ, obscure, but far more gifted than most of his numerous contemporaries in the same field; his poems more suited to recitation, for which they were intended, than for being

M. Valerius Martialis, about A.D. 42-about 102; 14 books of epigrams; a true reflex of the taste of his age; very ingenious. but wholly wanting in self-respect; a master in his art; a perfect mirror of the life of his own day.

M. Fabius Quintilianus, about A.D. 35-about 95; rhetorical work Institutio Uratoria, i.e., 'the training of an orator,' in 12 books: attempts to uphold the standard of a purer taste, and to arrest the decay of style; lays down sound rules of judgment; a critic of the first order.

Cornelius Tacitus, about A.D. 54-119; (1) rhetorical, De Oratoribus. a discussion of the differences between the oratory of Cicero's time and his own; (2) the Agricola, a biographical study, the life of his father-in-law Julius Agricola; (3) Historia, in 14 books. dealing with the 27 years from Nero's death to Domitian's: only four books and a part of the fifth are extant; (4) Annales, in 16 books, from the death of Augustus to that of Nero; of this a large part is lost; (5) the Germania, a short treatise on the geography, customs. and tribes of Germany; undoubtedly the greatest of Roman historians; sometimes partial and biassed, e.g., in his hostility to the Emperors, but for vividness, terseness, and dramatic power, he remains for ever unrivalled.

C. Plinius Cæcilius Secundus (the younger), A.D. 62-113; a collection of letters published by himself, and an elaborate Paneguric in honour of Trajan; his letters throw a flood of light on the best side of Roman society of the time, and prove the writer to have been both a gentleman and a wit; their language is extremely pure and almost entirely free from that poetical colouring which disfigures so much of the prose of that age.

D. Junius Juvenalis, about A.D. 67-about 147; 16 satires; full of moral earnestness; he sees nothing but the bad side of the life around him, and is sometimes so carried away by his indignation that he overstates the case; satire in his hands becomes a tremendous weapon for lashing vice; there is no room with him for Horace's playful humour; his style, like that of all his contemporaries, is influenced by the habit of declamation; all his verses, splendid as

they are in technique, are intended for recitation.

C. Suetonius Tranquillus, about A.D. 75-about 160; the Lives of the Caesars; full of biographical details, but often uncritical; the only remains of his encyclopædic writings.

HORACE'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

Birth, 65 B.C.

"O nata mecum, consule Manlio, . . . pia testa."—Odes, III. xxi. 1-4.

At Venusia.

"Lucanus an Apulus anceps, Nam Venusinus arat finem sub utrumque colonus."—Sat., II. i. 34.

Parentage.

"Me libertino natum patre et in tenui re."—Epist., I. xx. 20.

"Libertino patre natum."—Sat., I. vi. 6.

"Aut, ut fuit ipse (sc. pater), coactor."—l.c. 86.

Education—(1) At Rome; (2) At Athens.

- "Puerum est ausus Romam portare docendum."—Sat., I. vi. 71.
- "Romæ nutriri mihi contigit atque doceri; Adjecere bonæ paullo plus artis Athenæ."

Tribune in Brutus' army at Philippi. B.C. 42.

"Dura sed emovere loco me tempora grato Civilisque rudem belli tulit æstus in arma

Cæsaris Augusti non responsura lacertis."—Epist., II. ii. 41.

"Mihi pareret legio Romana tribuno."—Sat., I. vi. 48.

"Tecum Philippos et celerem fugam,

Sensi, relicta non bene parmula."—Odes, II. vii. 9.

Suffered severely from the subsequent proscriptions; on his return to Rome, supported himself by writing poetry. B.C. 41.

"Unde simul primum me dimisere Philippi, Decisis humilem pennis inopemque paterni Et laris et fundi paupertas impulit audax Ut versus facerem."—Epist., II. ii.

His friends; introduction to Mæcenas (probably about B.C. 38); friendship established,

"Optimus olim

Vergilius, post hunc Varius dixere quid essem.
.... Revocas nono post mense, jubesque

Esse in amicorum numero."—Sat., I. vi. 55, 61,

"Septimus octavo proprior iam fugerit annus,

Ex quo Mæcenas me cœpit habere suorum

In numero."—Sat., II. vi. 40.

"Mæcenas . . . præsidium et dulce decus meum."—Odes, I. i 1; cf. also II. xvii. 3.

Journey to Brundisium with Mæcenas and other famous men, B.C. 38.

Sat. I. v. (whole of it).

"Plotius et Varius . . . Vergiliusque."

"Mæcenas advenit atque

Cocceius Capitoque simul Fonteius."

Comfortable circumstances owing to friendship of Mæcenas, who gave him a small estate in the Sabine hills.

"Satis superque me benignitas tua Ditavit."—Epodes, i. 31.

"Satis beatus unicis Sabinis,"—II. xviii. 14.

Personal appearance and disposition.

"Corporis exigui, præcanum, solibus aptum,

Irasci celerem, tamen ut placabilis essem."—Evist., I. xx. 24.

" Ego . . . lippus."—Sat., I. v. 30.

N.B.—Horace died Nov. 27, B.C. 8, a few days after Mæcenas (cf. Odes, II. xvii., strikingly prophetic).

OVID'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

"Sulmo mihi patria est; . . . nec non, ut tempora noris, Cum cecidit fato consul uterque pari;

Si quid id est, usque a proavis vetus ordinis heres; Non modo Fortunæ munere factus eques: Nec stirps prima fui; genito sum fratre creatus; Qui tribus ante quater mensibus ortus erat. Protinus excolimur teneri, curaque parentis Imus ad insignes urbis ab arte viros. At mihi jam puero cælestia sacra placebant : Inque suum furtim Musa trahebat opus: Sponte sua carmen numeros veniebat ad aptos; Et, quod tentabam dicere, versus erat. Temporis illius colui fovique poetas: Quotque aderant vates, rebar adesse Deos Multa quidem scripsi : sed quæ vitiosa putavi, Emendaturis ignibus ipse dedi. Jam mihi canities, pulsis melioribus annis, Venerat; antiquas miscueratque comas; Cum maris Euxini positos ad læva Tomitas Quærere me læsi Principis ira jubet. Scite, precor, causam—nec vos mihi fallere fas est-Errorem jussæ, non scelus, esse fugæ." -Tristia, iv. 10.

TERMS CONNECTED WITH BOOKS AND WRITING.

I. Charta, paper, made from the papyrus reed of the Nile, invented in Egypt; imported to Rome towards the end of the Republic; books written on this (on one side only) were called 'libri'; strips of various sizes were made; when covered with writing, these strips ('paginæ') were glued together in proper order at the sides.

N.B.—A book e.g. of Vergil's *Encid* probably formed one volume ('volumen'); when this was all glued together, it was rolled up on a stick ('umbilicus'); the two ends were coloured black, and knobs ('cornua' or 'umbilici') at each extremity of the stick kept the roll symmetrical and neat. Often the rolls were steeped in cedar oil to preserve them, and inclosed in cases ('capsa') with the title in vermilion outside.

II. Pergamena (sc. membrana), parchment or vellum, so called from the city of Pergamum, where it was invented. This, though more durable, was more expensive; on the other hand, it could be used on both sides; books of it, made up in modern form, were called 'codices.' N.B.—Second-hand parchment, which had been cleaned, was 'palimpsestum.'

III. Codicilli, wooden tablets covered with wax for brief notes; the 'stilus,' a pointed metal pen, was used in writing on these; the writing in this case could be easily erased, and the wax used several times.

IV. Atramentum, ink (also sepia). Calamus, pen, i.e., reed-pen for writing on vellum or papyrus (also 'arundo' and 'fistula').

V. Librarii, slaves who copied books; bibliopolæ, booksellers.

N.B.—Numerous public libraries in Rome after the time of Augustus; books numerous, and not, as a rule, very expensive.

LIST OF VARIOUS TECHNICAL TERMS.

accensi, (1) public officers in attendance on some of the Roman magistrates and provincial governors, (2) supernumeraries in the Roman army, posted behind the triarii.

actio, legal process; the claim of the plaintiff against the defendant; the setting of the law in motion ('actio legis').

advocatus, a person who in any way gave his advice and aid to another in the management of a case in the courts.

ærarium, the public treasury at Rome; this was the temple of Saturn. Besides the public money and accounts, there were kept there, (1) the standards of the legions, (2) the laws engraved on brass, (3) copies of 'senatusconsulta,' (4) various public documents.

ager publicus, land belonging to the Roman State; it being a recognised principle among the Italian nations that the territory of a conquered people belonged to the conquerors, the Romans acquired fresh territory on each conquest; such as was not assigned became 'ager publicus.'

ambitus, (1) canvassing, (2) all the arts employed to catch votes, and so often with a sinister meaning of undue influence, bribery, etc.

amici Augusti, a kind of cabinet, first formed by Augustus to assist him with advice, and maintained by subsequent emperors.

annona, (1) the produce of the year, (2) provisions in general, especially corn, (3) the price of provisions, (4) a soldier's rations for a certain time.

apparitor, the general name for a public servant of Roman magis-

trates, e.g., the 'accensus, lictor, præco, viator.'

argentarii, private bankers or money-changers at Rome, not in the service of the State like the 'mensarii'; their shops ('tabernæ') were round the forum.

basilica, a building which served as a court of law and an exchange, or place of meeting for merchants and men of business; the first was built in Rome in B.C. 182 in the forum near the Curia by M. Porcius Cato; twenty others afterwards were built in Rome; many of these were subsequently used as Christian churches.

bidental, any place where a man had been struck by lightning; the priests consecrated the spot by sacrificing a two-year old sheep

('bidens').

bissextus annus, leap year; the 24th February (vi. Kal. Mart.) was twice reckoned in such a year, being known as the 'dies bissextus'

bulla, a boss or circular plate of gold, worn hanging from the neck by the sons of the noble and free-born; the sons of 'libertini' wore one of leather.

calones, the servants of Roman soldiers.

cancelli, lattice-work before the tribunal of a judge; the bar of tribunals.

candidatus, a candidate for office, so called from his specially

whitened toga.

capite censi, the lowest class of citizens in the rating of Servius Tullius; i.e., those who, having no property, were rated as so many head of citizens.

capitis diminutio, a change in a person's status or civil condition; either total or partial loss of freedom, citizenship, and rights as a 'pater-familias.'

carceres, the stalls for horses and chariots at the extremity of the circus; the starting-place, opposed to calx or meta, the goal.

cataphracti, heavy-armed cavalry, the horses being also covered with mail; not in use amongst Romans till late on in the Empire.

caupona, (1) an inn, also called diversorium, (2) a shop where wine and ready-dressed meat were sold.

causam dicere, to defend one's self in a trial.

centesima, a tax of 1 p.c. levied at Rome and in Italy on all goods exposed for public sale at auctions, collected by coactores.

centuria, (1) one of the 193 bodies into which Servius Tullius divided the Roman people, (2) a division in the army (60 centurize in a Roman legion).

clavus latus, a broad purple band, from the neck to the waist, worn by senators,

clavus angustus, two narrow purple bands worn by those of equestrian rank.

clientes, persons in some way dependent on or under the protection of a patronus, in return for whose services, whether in the law courts or in their private relations, they owed certain duties, e.g., ransom in war, canvassing at elections, etc.

coactores, collectors of various sorts, e.g., servants of the 'publicani' or farmers of the taxes; also the servants of an auctioneer.

collegium, the union of several persons for any common purpose; a corporation or guild; a body of persons united by the same office or calling.

comitium, a place near the forum where the 'comitia,' the legal meetings or assemblies of the people took place for the election of magistrates; so 'comitia' often signifies the elections.

comperendinatio, adjournment of a trial till the next day but one, when it was not finished on the first day.

confarreatio, an ancient solemn manner of marrying among the Romans, in which an offering of oaten cake ('far') was made in presence of the Pontifex Maximus or Flamen Dialis, and ten witnesses. N.B.—An ancient form of divorce was 'diffarreatio.'

congiarium, a donative to the people of corn, wine, oil, etc.

conquisitores, officers sent about the country to impress soldiers when there was any difficulty in completing a levy.

conscripti, in phrase 'patres conscripti,' i.e. senators, possibly so called to distinguish them from the 'patres,' who were not enrolled as senators. Probably abbreviated for 'patres et conscripti,' i.e., the original senators and those enrolled in 509.

contio, an assembly of the people at Rome convened by a magistrate for the purpose of making them acquainted with measures to be brought before the next 'comitia'; there was, however, no voting, and so no question could be decided at a 'contio.' The word is also used for the speech then delivered.

conventus, the districts or circuits into which a province was

divided for the better administration of justice; the governor himself presided, assisted by assessors ('consilium').

crimen, (1) charge, (2) an act which is legally punishable.

cuneus, (1) a military formation, wedge-shaped, for breaking an enemy's line, (2) the rows of seats in theatres, converging on the centre.

cuniculi, mines or galleries in military sense.

curia, (1) one of ten divisions of the three ancient tribes, (2) the

place in which the Senate held its meetings.

decume, a tithe of the produce of the soil, forming a portion of the Roman 'vectigalia' paid by subjects; also paid by 'possessores' of the 'ager publicus.'

decumana porta, the main gate in a Roman camp, furthest from the enemy, opposite the 'porta prætoria'; so called because the tenth

cohort of each legion was quartered there.

decurio, (1) the officer in charge of 10 troopers, (2) the members

of the senate, in 'municipia' and 'coloniæ.'

dediticii, conquered people who had surrendered unconditionally to Rome; as a community they lost all political existence.

delatores, a class of people who, under the Emperors, gained a livelihood by informing against their fellow-citizens.

delectus, military levy (also written dilectus).

diem dicere, to impeach; a magistrate intending to impeach a citizen gave public notice in a 'contio' and named the day on which he would summon the 'comitia' for the purpose of instituting proceedings.

discessio, a 'division' in the senate for voting purposes.

divinatio, the decision, when two or more accusers came forward against the same individual, who should conduct the prosecution; when this was decided, the others supported the man chosen, and

were known as 'subscriptores.'

edicendi jus, the right of issuing edicts belonging to the higher magistrates, but principally exercised by the two prætors; 'edicta' were among the sources of Roman law; as the magistrates were annual, the edicts of his predecessor were not binding on a magistrate, but many of them were adopted, and the whole body of such was known as the 'edictum tralaticium.' Each magistrate on entering office issued a manifesto of the main lines on which he meant to proceed; this was known as 'perpetuum edictum.'

emancipatio, the releasing of a son, by means of a thrice-repeated

'mancipatio' and 'manumissio,' from the 'patria potestas,' so as to render him independent during his father's life-time; it was a form of sale.

emeriti, Roman soldiers who had served out their time, and had exemption ('vacatio').

equester ordo, the 'equites' were not merely the citizens who served in the cavalry with a horse provided by the State ('equo publico'), but all persons who possessed the census entitling them to belong to the cavalry ('equester census,' fixed by Augustus at 400,000 sesterces); they were the richest body in the State, and were erected into an 'ordo' with definite privileges by C. Gracchus, in B.C. 122, who gave them the exclusive right to sit on juries ('judices'). Their insignia were the 'clavus angustus' and a ring of gold. As the senators were not allowed to engage in trade, all commerce, banking, speculation, etc., had passed into their hands. Sulla curtailed their privileges, but Pompey restored them. By the 'Lex Roscia Othonis' they had fourteen rows of seats assigned them in the theatre immediately behind the senators,—a recognition of their position—B.C. 67.

ergastula, prisons or barracoons on Roman estates, in which slaves, who had worked all day in chains on the fields, were confined at night, often underground.

evocati, soldiers who had served their time, but who volunteered

to go on serving with higher pay and various privileges.

exauctorati, (1) soldiers who, for good service, received a partial discharge ('missio') after 16 years' service instead of 20; they remained as a separate corps under a 'vexillum' of their own, with special privileges; (2) soldiers who had been discharged dishonourably, 'drummed out'; (in this latter sense especially during the later Empire).

extraordinarii, a select body of troops, consisting of \(\frac{1}{5} \) the infantry and \(\frac{1}{5} \) the cavalry of the allies, always in close attendance on the general.

familia, (1) the slaves belonging to a man's household; his establishment; (2) a branch of the 'gens' or clan; all 'familiæ' of a 'gens' referred their origin to a common ancestor.

fasces, rods bound up in a bundle, with an axe ('securis') in the middle; 12 lictors preceded the consuls carrying 'fasces'; 6 preceded the prætors outside Rome (only 2, if in Rome); 24 preceded a dictator.

fasti, (1) the registers of consuls, dictators, censors, and other magistrates, forming part of the public archives; (2) the register of the legal court-days ('dies fasti'), kept by the 'pontifices'; (3) almanac, calendar.

feriæ, holidays, on which all business, public and private, was suspended; some were held on regular days, e.g. the Lupercalia (15th Feb.), Saturnalia (17th Dec.); others had the days annually fixed by the magistrates or priests, e.g. Feriæ Latinæ; political use was often made of the latter to prevent or delay public business; the consuls could not take the field until they had held the 'feriæ Latinæ'; these lasted 6 days, were held by the whole people on the Alban mount, and were intended to symbolise and cement the early alliance between Latins and Romans.

N.B.—There were always 45 days every year of fixed holidays. fetiales, a college of priests whose duty it was to superintend all the ceremonial connected with making war and peace; the guardians

of the public faith.

fiscus, the imperial as opposed to the senatorial treasury ('aerarium'); out of it, the Emperor supported himself, the army, navy, his establishment, etc.; though properly distinct from the Emperor's private property ('patrimonium' or 'ratio Cæsaris'), there is no doubt that it had to supply many of his private expenses. Ultimately the word came to signify generally the property of the State, the Emperor having concentrated in himself all the sovereign power.

flamen, the name of any Roman priest who was devoted to the service of one particular god, e.g. flamen Dialis, Martialis, Quirinalis.

formula, carefully worded instructions given by the prætor to the 'judex' or 'arbiter' or 'recuperatores' to whom he sent cases for trial; by degrees 'formulæ,' rules for the conduct of judicial business, had been introduced to meet nearly every possible contingency. The prætor granted the 'formula' to a plaintiff with the words 'do' ('I grant a trial'), 'dico' ('I declare the law'), 'addico' ('I assign the matter in dispute'); these are the 'tria verba' which could not be pronounced on 'dies nefasti.'

forum, (1) any outside space with set bounds; hence place of gathering, market-place; (2) especially the 'forum magnum' at Rome, which was a low, open artificial level, about 630 feet long by 100 broad, between the Capitoline and Palatine hills, surrounded by porticos ('basilicæ') and the shops of money-changers ('argen-

tariæ'), and in later times by many splendid buildings, and adorned with numberless statues.

fugitivus, a runaway slave; could not lawfully be harboured or sold.

gallicinium, cockcrow, i.e. the last watch of the night.

gladiatores, fighters in the public games; first exhibited in Rome in B.C. 264 and originally confined to public funerals; consisted of captives, slaves, and condemned malefactors, sometimes of free-born citizens who fought voluntarily; freemen who fought for hire were called 'auctorati.' Gladiators were kept in schools ('ludi') and trained by 'lanistæ,' the whole body being known as a 'familia'; usually exhibited for hire in the amphitheatre; bills or programmes ('libelli') were published before such shows; every sort of variety was introduced, e.g. 'retiarii,' 'mirmillones,' 'essedarii,' etc.; a gladiator, who won his discharge by pleasing the people, was presented with a wooden sword ('rudis'), hence he was said to be 'rude donatus.' The passion for this brutal amusement increased to such an extent that, after Trajan's triumph over the Dacians, more than 10,000 gladiators were exhibited.

hasta, (1) a spear without head ('hasta pura') was presented by generals to soldiers for saving the life of a fellow-citizen; (2) a spear was erected at auctions; hence 'sub hasta vendere'=to sell by auction.

heres ex asse, heir to the whole property; the shares of 'heredes' being expressed by reference to the divisions of the 'as'; so 'heres ex semisse'=heir to ½; 'heres ex dodrante'=heir to ½, etc.

histrio, an actor; in the year B.C. 364, Rome being visited by a plague, it was determined to try and avert the anger of the gods by scenic plays; actors, hitherto unknown in Rome, were imported from Etruria, and the Etruscan name for them survived in 'histrio.'

honores, the high offices of State at Rome; holding these conferred 'dignitas' or rank.

ignominia, the stigma of the censors ('nota censoria'), involving temporary dishonour and degradation; this lasted for 5 years ('lustrum'); whereas infamia, which was inflicted for certain crimes and vile practices, lasted for life and rendered a man incapable of holding any honourable office.

imagines, waxen busts of ancestors kept in their hall ('atrium') by those whose ancestors had held any curule office; these were

carried in funeral processions; the 'jus honorum' was hereditary, and carried with it 'nobilitas.'

immunitas, (1) freedom from taxes; (2) freedom from services which other citizens had to discharge, e.g. exemption from military service.

imperium, (1) the complete sovereignty of the king 'domi et militiæ'; (2) under the early republic it was limited 'domi' by the right of 'provocatio' and by 'intercessio' of a colleague or the tribune, but 'militiæ' it remains as before; the latter can now only be held by the direct successors of the king, i.e. consuls or prætors; (3) in the later republic, the 'imperium militiæ' still remains the same with the exception of limitation in space, but the 'imperium domi' loses its distinctness, so that in Cicero's time 'imperium' and 'potestas' are convertible terms as regards Rome and Italy; (4) in Cæsar's hands, the 'imperium militiæ' is freed from its only restraint, i.e. the local one, and seems to absorb the 'imperium domi' in one general 'imperium' which is equivalent to universal sovereignty; it can now be exercised everywhere, and is as comprehensive as it was in the regal period.

ingenui, free-born men; freedmen ('libertini') were not 'ingenui,'

though their children were.

intercessio, the interference of any magistrate, to whom an appeal was made, with another of equal or lower rank; it was the chief power of the 'tribuni plebis,' i.e., the right of putting their veto on the intended acts of all other magistrates, of the Senate, and even of one another; thus they could stop all public business.

interrex, (1) on the death of a king, an 'interrex' was chosen by casting lots among the 'patres'; his duty was to choose a new candidate, whose election the 'comitia curiatia' and Senate should confirm; an 'interrex' held office for five days only, then appointing a successor. (2) under the Republic, 'interreges' were occasionally appointed by the Senate, when, from any cause, the office of consul became vacant; the 'interrex' held office for five days only, when a successor was chosen; as soon as the 'interrex' for the time being had held the 'comitia' for the election of consuls, the latter immediately entered on their duties, and the 'interregnum' was at an end.

judex, (1) a Roman magistrate did not, as a rule, investigate the facts in dispute in such matters as were brought before him, but appointed a 'judex' or 'arbiter' for that purpose, and gave him instructions ('formula).' Hence the whole civil procedure was ex-

pressed by the two phrases 'jus' and 'judicium,' of which the former embraced all that took place before the magistrate ('in jure'), and the latter all that took place before the 'judex' (in judicio'). Often more than one 'judex' was appointed; these were known as 'recuperatores.' (2) after the establishment of 'quæstiones perpetuæ' for the trial of criminal cases, 'judices' implies jurors acting under the directions of a presiding judge. There was no payment of 'judices.'

N.B.—Down to B.C. 122 'judices' were always senators; in that year C. Gracchus transferred the privilege to the 'equites.' Sulla in 82 restored it to the Senate. The Lex Aurelia of 70 shared it between the senate, equites, and a new class, the tribuni ærarii; the last class was suppressed by J. Cæsar.

jurisdictio, usually applied to the authority of the prætor in civil cases, such as the giving of the 'formula' in an 'actio' and the appointment of a 'judex.'

jus Latii (also known as 'Latinitas' and 'Latium'), a certain status intermediate between that of 'cives' and 'peregrini'; the limited privileges, (not very clearly defined,) of the Latins before the Social war; it was frequently given to peoples and cities outside Italy. N.B.—Full 'civitas' was given to the whole Roman Empire by Caracalla (A.D. 211–217).

justitium, a cessation of public business of every kind, proclaimed by the Senate and magistrates in times of public alarm and danger.

lectisternium, on occasions of extraordinary solemnity, the images of the gods were placed on couches with feasts spread before them; the couch was known as 'pulvinar.'

legati, (1) ambassadors passing between Rome and foreign powers, or vice versa; (2) officers who accompanied Roman generals into the field, or the proconsuls and prætors into the provinces; these were nominated by the general, the sanction of the Senate being however required; always men of military talents, who could fill the general's place in case of need; their number varied, sometimes only three, but Pompey in Asia had fifteen; (3) the imperial provinces were governed by vicegerents of the Emperor, known also as 'legati.'

legatio libera, a much abused privilege often granted to senators during the latter period of the Republic, viz., to travel through or stay in any of the provinces, at the expense of the provincials, on purely private business. Those who availed themselves of it

enjoyed all the privileges without having to perform any of the duties of ambassadors.

libellus, (1) a small book; (2) a written accusation, sent in some cases by the plaintiff to the judicial authorities; (3) a memorandum, programme, bill of the public shows; (4) libels or pasquinades, very severely punished by the XII. Tables.

libertini, those who had been released from legal servitude; a manumitted slave was 'libertus' (i.e. liberatus) with reference to his master; 'libertinus' with reference to the class to which he belonged; opposed to 'ingenui.'

lictor, a public officer in attendance on the chief Roman magistrates, i.e., those who had 'imperium'; inflicted punishment on Roman citizens (foreigners and slaves were dealt with by the 'carnifex,' 'public executioner'); generally freedmen; (cf. note on fasces).

littera salutaris, *i.e.*, A = absolvo, opposed to 'littera tristis,' *i.e.*, C = condemno, on voting tablets.

litterati, grammarians, especially the learned expounders of the poets. N.B.—litteratus, 'a branded slave,'

ludi, the various public games and contests at Rome, (1) 'ludi circenses' those held in the circus; (2) 'ludi scenici,' in the theatre; the first, mainly gladiatorial; the second, chiefly theatrical; under the superintendence of the ædiles. N.B.—'ludus' has (1) the meaning 'school' for elementary instruction and discipline; (2) 'pastime' generally.

lustrum, (1) purification of the whole Roman people by the Censors in the Campus Martius after the census was completed; (2) the time between two lustra, i.e., period of five years.

majestas, or 'læsa majestas,' 'crimen majestatis,' technically any offence against the greatness or dignity of the Roman people; wider in its range than our word 'treason'; especially applied to treachery of a general at the head of an army, sedition, and mal-administration. Under the Empire the term was also applied to the person of the reigning Cæsar.

mancipatio, (1) the formal transfer, in the presence of witnesses, of the ownership of a thing, so called because the person receiving the thing took hold of it ("quia manu res capitur"); 'mancipium' was equivalent to complete ownership, as opposed to 'usus' and 'fructus'; (2) a slave is also called 'mancipium,' as being one of the 'res mancipi.' manumissio, the form of releasing slaves; (1) 'testamento' (by will); (2) 'censu' (when the slave was registered as a citizen by the censor with the master's consent); (3) 'vindicta' (by a mock trial before the prætor).

mediastini, slaves used for the merest drudgery, usually in the country.

medix tuticus, the supreme magistrate among the Oscan people.

mensarii, public bankers at Rome, appointed by the State; lent money from the 'ærarium' on good security; opposed to 'argentarii' or private bankers, doing business on their own account.

metallum, (1) a mine; (2) metal.

mille passus, the Roman mile, consisting of 1,000 'passus' of about 5 feet each; 1,618 English yards. (N.B.—The 'passus' was a step with each foot.) Milestones were 'milliaria' or 'lapides.'

missio, military discharge; (1) 'honesta' for length of service; (2) 'causaria' in consequence of bad health; (6) 'ignominiosa' for bad conduct.

municipia, free towns managing their own private affairs, possessing 'civitas sine suffragio'; their citizens were liable to military service and taxation if they removed to Rome. It seems that some 'municipia' possessed more local self-government than others; to some 'praefecti' were sent from Rome to administer justice; such are also known as 'præfecturæ.'

N.B.—After the Social war, these towns in Italy were still known as 'municipia,' though they now possessed full franchise. In some of the provinces also there were towns which had been raised to the status of 'municipia' in the limited sense, until Caracalla granted universal franchise to the Empire.

murus, the wall of a city (also 'meenia'-fortified walls), as opposed to 'paries'-the wall of a house, and 'maceria'-a boundary wall.

navales socii, crews of the fleet, obtained almost entirely from Italian 'socii.'

navalia, docks.

negotiatores, Roman citizens settled in the provinces for purposes of trade; they lent money on interest, bought up corn on speculation, etc.

nobilitas, those who had filled a curule office, and so possessed the 'jus imaginum' (cf. note on 'imagines'); the Senate, being mainly composed of ex-magistrates, consisted largely of 'nobiles,' and in time every senator was accounted 'nobilis,' whatever magistracy he

had held. N.B.—Originally the patricians had been the 'nobiles' as opposed to the plebeians, but as the plebeians rose to the same political level, there grew up a new order of nobility as above.

nomen Latinum, the members of the old Latin league, soon after the Great Latin War B.C. 338, when their rights were reduced, were thus called; other Italians were called 'socii Italici.'

nomenclator, a servant in attendance on a 'candidatus' when canvassing, to tell him the names of all the people he met.

nota, the stigma attached by the censors to the names of such citizens as they intended to disgrace (cf. note on 'ignominia' 'infamia').

novus homo, a plebeian who first attained a curule office, and so founded the 'nobilitas' of his family; such a person had no 'imagines,' for these were not made till after his death; he was not therefore fully 'nobilis'; 'novi homines' were much looked down upon by the old patricians. Notable examples were C. Marius and M. Tullius Cicero.

nudius tertius, i.e. nunc dies (sc. est) tertius, 'three days ago'; so also nudius quartus, 'four days ago.'

nundinæ, market days for the country folk, occurring every 8th day; seven days between two nundinæ.

obnuntiatio, the announcing of unfavourable omens by a magistrate in order to stop public business; one of the commonest forms of obstruction. N.B.—Watching for these was called 'spectio' or 'servare de cælo.'

optimates, the aristocratic as opposed to the popular or democratic party ('populares'), composed of the 'nobilitas' and the 'equites' or rich middle class.

optio, an assistant chosen by a 'centurio' or 'decurio.'

ovatio, an inferior kind of triumph, e.g., for successes such as Perperna and Crassus gained over the revolted slaves under Athenion and Spartacus respectively.

paludamentum, the cloak of a Roman general, assumed when he left the city, and put off before he re-entered it. N.B.—'Sagum' or 'sagulum,' the ordinary military cloak.

parento, (1) to offer a solemn sacrifice in honour of deceased parents or relatives; (2) to revenge the death of the same by killing another as an offering to the 'manes'; (3) to revenge generally.

parochi, persons paid by the State to supply Roman magistrates and others travelling on State business with such things as hay, salt,

fire-wood, and beds; such purveyors were to be found at all the principal stations on Roman roads, both in Italy and the provinces.

parricida, (1) murderer of a parent or any near relation, (2) a murderer generally, (3) a traitor to one's country.

patria potestas, the almost absolute power which a Roman had over his children and family. Originally the father had the power of life and death over his son; he could sell him; also he could give his daughter in marriage, or give a wife to his son, could divorce his child, give him in adoption, and emancipate him at pleasure. Some of these rights were subsequently curtailed.

peculatus, the misappropriation of public property.

peculium, such acquisitions as a slave was allowed by his master to retain for himself; in strict law, this hoard still belonged to the master, but, by usage, the slave was permitted to hold it and so purchase his freedom.

pedarii, senators who were only entitled to vote ('pedibus ire'), not to speak.

perduellio, treason by making war on the State; the penalty was death.

persona, a mask worn by actors.

pileus, a cap of felt given to a manumitted slave as an emblem of liberty; hence 'pileati,' i.e. freed slaves.

plebiscitum, a resolution of the 'plebs' in the 'comitia tributa' on the 'rogatio' of a tribune; originally requiring confirmation from the Senate; but obtained the force of law binding on the whole community by the Lex Hortensia of B.C. 287.

pomerium (post meros or muros), a belt of open ground following the course of the city wall, probably on either side; frequently extended as the city increased.

pontifices, the most illustrious among the Roman colleges of priests; chief among them was the 'pontifex maximus,' the head of the State religion; these 'pontifices' were not priests of any particular divinity, but a college which stood above all other priests, and superintended the whole external worship of the gods; the whole 'cultus Romanus' was in their hands; also the regulation of the Calendar; and all important family ceremonies, e.g., adoption, marriage, etc. In imperial times, the Emperor was always 'pontifex maximus.'

portorium, a branch of the regular revenues of the Roman State, consisting of the duties paid on imported and exported goods; farmed,

like other 'vectigalia' by the 'publicani,' who collected it through the 'portitores.'

possessio, the use or enjoyment of the 'ager publicus,' not the ownership, as the land was still State property. People thus occupying it were 'possessores,' paying rent to the State.

postliminium, a return to one's former rights and privileges; a term used of a man who had been taken prisoner by the enemy, and thereby suffered a 'diminutio capitis.'

potestas, the authority of such magistrates as had not 'imperium.' præco, (1) a crier at an auction, (2) at public assemblies to order silence, (3) at trials to summon the parties, etc., etc.

præfectus urbi, a permanent magistrate instituted by Augustus, and invested with all the powers necessary to maintain peace and order in the city; most of the functions formerly belonging to the ædiles were in his hands, with many others; there was no appeal from his decision except to the Emperor himself.

præjudicium, (1) a preliminary inquiry and determination about something connected with the matter in dispute, (2) a precedent formerly the decision of some competent court.

prærogativa (sc. centuria or tribus), the century or tribe which obtained by lot the right of voting first.

prætexta toga, bordered with a broad band of purple, worn by curule magistrates; also worn by children. N.B.—Actors in a tragedy, the plot of which was taken from Roman history ('fabula prætextata') wore it.

prætorium, (1) the general's quarters in a Roman camp, (2) council of war, (3) residence of a provincial governor.

pravaricatio, the making of a sham accusation or defence; collusion; especially of an advocate who has a secret understanding with the opposite party.

primipilus, the senior centurion in a Roman legion; had a seat at the council of war.

princeps senatus, originally the oldest senator who had filled the office of censor,—a rule not subsequently observed; he spoke first at the invitation of the president, but had no privileges beyond this.

privilegium, (1) an enactment that had for its object a single person; it might be beneficial or the reverse to the party to whom it referred; (2) under the Empire it came to mean a special grant proceeding from the imperial favour.

procurator, (1) an attorney, (2) a steward in a family, (3) a financial agent of the Emperor in the provinces, (4) an officer engaged in the administration of the 'fiscus,'

proletarii, the lowest class of citizens; also known as 'capite censi.'

prorogatio, an extension of a magistrate's powers beyond his year of office by a decree of the Senate.

proscriptio, (1) exhibiting a thing for sale by means of an advertisement, (2) from Sulla's time, B.C. 82, the sale of the property of those who were put to death at his command, and who were called 'proscripti.'

provincia, (1) sphere of duty, e.g., the practor's work in Rome, (2) a part of the Roman dominion beyond Italy under Roman administration, e.g., Sicily after 1st Punic war,

provocatio, the right of appeal to the people from the sentence of a magistrate in a capital case; granted to the plebs by the Lex Valeria of B.C. 509.

publicani, farmers of the public revenues ('vectigalia') of the Roman State; these were sold by the censors to the highest bidder; these men were usually 'equites' formed into companies ('societates'); only Roman citizens could become members of such companies; their agents were known as 'portitores.'

pugillares, sc. cerae, writing-tablets (i.e., that can be grasped in the fist).

puteal, (1) the inclosure round the mouth of a well ('puteus'), (2) sacred spots similarly surrounded; two in the Roman forum, of which the best known was the 'puteal Libonis'; here a chapel had been struck by lightning; this 'puteal' became the common meeting places for usurers.

questiones perpetue, standing commissions for the trial of criminal offences, originally presided over by a prætor; the first of these was established in B.C. 149 by the Lex Calpurnia 'de pecuniis repetundis'; a second was added in 123 by C. Gracchus for the trial of judicial corruption; and several more by Sulla in 81, from which time they become the chief and most efficient means of criminal jurisdiction. The presiding judge, who was either a prætor or an officer known as 'judex quæstionis,' was bound to see that the provisions of the law under which the trial took place were strictly complied with, but he exercised no direct influence on the final result of the trial, the decision resting entirely with the 'judices' or jurors.

quincunx, (1) $\frac{5}{12}$ of an 'as,' i.e. 5 unciæ; (2) the arrangement of the maniples, like the five spots on a die; (3) trees were planted in similar oblique avenues to insure the greatest amount of air and

light.

Quirites, said by some to be derived from a Sabine word 'quiris,' i.e. spear; hence 'warriors' would seem to be its equivalent, but, as Caesar is said to have quelled a mutiny among his soldiers by addressing them as 'Quirites' instead of 'milites,' i.e. as citizens instead of soldiers, this theory seems indefensible. Others connect it with 'Cures,' the name of a Sabine town, asserting that, after the Romans and Sabines had united in one community under Romulus, the name 'Quirites' was taken in addition to that of 'Romani'; the Romans calling themselves in a civil capacity 'Quirites,' while in a political and military capacity they retained the name of 'Romani.' Thus 'populus Romanus Quiritium'=the Roman commonwealth of Quirite citizens. N.B.—'jus Quiritium'=full Roman citizenship.

redemptor, a contractor for any kind of work, public or private; the 'publicani' being those who took up State contracts were some-

times so called.

relatio, bringing a matter before the Senate for discussion ('rem

referre ad senatum').

relegatio, a less severe form of 'exsilium'; it confined a person to a certain place, to which he found his own way, or excluded him from particular places; it did not deprive a person of citizenship, whereas 'exsilium' did; e.g. Ovid was 'relegatus' to Tomi from Italy.

renuntiatio, (1) the announcing of the result of the votes by the magistrate at the 'comitia'; (2) divorce ('repudium,' 'divortium').

repetundæ (sc. res or pecuniæ), extortion and general maladministration in the provinces; numerous laws on the subject, e.g. Lex Calpurnia of 149, which established the first 'quæstio perpetua' on purpose to deal with such cases.

retiarii, a species of gladiators who fought with a net and trident;

usually pitted against 'mirmillones' or 'secutores.'

reus, (1) originally either party in an action; (2) generally, the

defendant in opposition to the plaintiff ('petitor').

rex sacrificulus, a priest to whom were transferred the priestly functions of the king, when the latter's civil and military powers were vested in prætors and consuls; the religious representative of the king in republican times,

rogatio, any measure or bill proposed to the legislative body; if passed, it became 'lex' or 'plebiscitum'; occasionally laws are known as 'rogationes,' but improperly, e.g. the famous Licinian Rogations. N.B.—The people, having the supreme legislative power, are asked if it is their will that such and such a proposal become law ("ita vos Quirites rogo").

rostra, the stage ('suggestus') in the forum from which orators spoke; adorned with the beaks of ships ('rostra') taken from the

people of Antium in 338.

rostrata columna, a column in the forum erected in honour of C. Duilius on occasion of his naval victory at Myla in 260, adorned with the beaks ('rostra') of the Carthaginian ships.

sacramentum, the military oath to obey the general.

sagum, the soldier's cloak as opposed to 'toga,' the garb of peace.

salutatio, a ceremonial visit paid by 'clientes' to their 'patronus' early in the morning; on which occasion the dole ('sportula') was delivered.

satura, (1) a mixture of all sorts of things, e.g. 'lanx satura,' an offering of various kinds of fruits; (2) a species of poetry, afterwards called 'satira.' N.B.—'lex per saturam lata,' a law which contained several distinct regulations at once.

Saturnalia, the festival of Saturnus towards the end of December; a period of unrestrained merriment and the wildest licence; even slaves had special indulgences at this season, being granted full freedom of speech and the right to make merry at their masters' expense.

scorpio, one of the smaller kinds of military engines ('tormenta')

or artillery.

scribæ, public notaries in the pay of the Roman State, chiefly employed in making up the public accounts of the Treasury.

scriptura, that part of the revenue which was derived from letting out in pasture such of the 'ager publicus' as was uncultivated.

sectio, the sale of a man's property by the State ('publice'); the property was sold 'sub hasta,' i.e. by auction; the buyers were 'sectores,' so called from the 'cutting up' into lots ('secare').

sestertius, a Roman silver coin, $2\frac{1}{2}$ asses; abbreviation, HS.; a sum of 1000 sestertii was called 'sestertium,' also denoted by HS. (sometimes a line was drawn across the top of the numeral to mark the distinction, but by no means always).

societas, (1) alliance; (2) a company of 'publicani' for farming taxes.

sordidati, said of accused persons who purposely neglected their dress and assumed an air of wretchedness to excite pity. N.B.—People in mourning were 'pullati,' from the colour of their toga.

spectio, watching the heavens for the auspices ('servare de cœlo').

spolia opima, spoils stripped by the commander himself from the
body of the hostile general; thrice only in Roman chronicles.

sportula, originally the hospitality extended by the 'patronus' at his house to such of his 'clientes' as came to pay their respects ('salutare'); in later times, a regular dole was provided for each client who came for it; this was carried off in a 'sportula' or little basket; lastly, money was given instead.

stipendium, (1) pay of the soldiers; (2) tribute. N.B.—
'stipendiarii' were those who paid tribute in money as opposed to
'veetigales,' who paid a certain portion of the produce of their

lands.

suggestus, any stage or artificial elevation from which an orator or general spoke.

supplicatio, (1) a solemn thanksgiving after a victory; (2) a solemn supplication and humiliation in times of danger and distress. tabellarius, a courier, letter-carrier.

tessera, (1) a die, numbered on six sides; (2) a tally of any kind, especially the 'tessera militaris,' on which the watchword or order for the day was written and passed along the ranks.

testudo, (1) a military machine moving on wheels and roofed over, used in besieging cities, usually covered with raw hides; (2) the covering formed by a close body of soldiers with their shields locked over their heads.

toga, the principal outer garment of Romans in time of peace, worn on all important occasions; various kinds, (1) 'toga virilis,' the garb of manhood, the natural colour of the wool; (2) 'candida,' when chalked for electioneering; (3) 'sordida,' as worn by accused persons; (4) 'pulla,' black, for mourning; (5) 'picta,' embroidered, worn by triumphing generals; (6) 'prætexta,' with broad purple border, worn by children and magistrates; (7) the 'trabea,' a toga ornamented with purple, worn on solemn occasions by certain high dignitaries. N.B.—'togatus,' civilian as opposed to 'miles.'

tormentum, (1) torture; (2) general term for military engines, e.g. 'ballista,' very large, specially used for shooting huge masses of

stone; 'catapulta,' for projecting darts, arrows, and other missiles; 'scorpio,' a smaller engine. N.B.—It is said the 'ballista' had a range of ½ mile. These were used to clear the walls, while the 'aries' made a breach.

triarii, the third line in a Roman army in early times; this being composed of veterans, the word is used sometimes in that sense.

tribuni, (1) military, the six chief officers of the legion; (2) plebeian tribunes, the special magistrates of the 'plebs,' appointed after the secession in B.C. 494; (3) 'tribuni ærarii,' officials who collected the 'tributum' in the different tribes for the pay of the troops; this latter class, a substantial body no doubt, were given judicial functions along with Senators and 'Equites' in 70 by the Lex Aurelia, though subsequently deprived of them by J. Cæsar.

triclinium, the dining-room of a Roman house, usually containing three couches, which afforded comfortable accommodation for nine persons only.

triumphus, a solemn procession, in which a victorious general entered the city in a four-horse chariot, preceded by his captives and spoils, and followed by his troops; after passing along the Via Sacra he ascended the Capitol to sacrifice in the temple of Jupiter. Such an honour was granted by the Senate only after a rigid scrutiny of a general's claims, e.g., at least 5000 of the enemy must have been killed in one battle; no one of lower rank than a practor could triumph. N.B.—Pompey's case in 81 was unprecedented.

Tullianum, a dungeon added by Servius Tullius to the State prison under the rock of the Capitol, close to the 'scale Gemoniæ.'

tumultus, a sudden rising, especially in Italy or Cisalpine Gaul; on such occasions there was a 'justitium' and a general enlistment; troops then enlisted were 'tumultuarii' or 'subitarii.'

turris, in military language, was a huge movable tower on wheels used in storming cities; very strongly built, protected against fire with raw hides, metal, etc.; divided into stories ('tabulata'); filled with engines of war of every kind and armed men; furnished with bridges and ladders for mounting the enemy's walls after the engines had cleared them of defenders ('propugnatores').

umbilici, ornamented knobs or bosses at the end of the stick on which a 'papyrus' or ancient book was rolled.

ususfructus, (1) the use and enjoyment of property belonging to another; (2) use that creates ownership, acquisition by prescription. vadimonium, a promise, secured by bail, for appearance on a given

day before a tribunal; bail, security. N.B.—'Sistere vadimonium,' to keep one's recognisance, present one's self in court—opposed to 'deserve.'

vectigalia, the general term for all the regular revenues of the Roman State.

ver sacrum, in times of great danger and distress it was customary to vow to sacrifice to the deity everything born in the next spring.

verna, a slave born on the estate, better treated than those bought., versura, changing one's creditor by borrowing fresh money to pay an old debt.

viaticum, money for travelling expenses, paid by the State on behalf of magistrates going to their provinces.

villicus, a bailiff, who superintended the 'villa rustica' and all the farm business.

vindicta, (1) the rod with which a slave was touched in the ceremony of manumission; (2) protection; (3) vengeance.

vinea, penthouse under which besiegers protected themselves; generally a wooden frame formed of planks, and covered with raw hides as a protection against fire; either carried or moved forward on wheels by men inside it.

volones, slaves who volunteered for military service in times of great need; e.g., 8000 after the battle of Cannæ did such good service that they were set free.

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Enos = God of feve (Cupiel)

Publius banchins reper afor me

Musics praestare-to do are's duly

public vesperer = soon at might

Gaesar first wor hard in Usta in g at the suge of Misilani le received la Cevil Grown is neveral for saving life o felleweitigen in bettle on his return to Kerne he came ferrison as a pleader - Mure defenden maladolo for entorten - la llen went to Khodes to shory Khetorierealisect that he must be a year speak as well as general - at the time cerplined by pricites Cassar reformed Culender before this lime the menths were all 28 days - mude them 31 days of Mr HS B.C. - was a great man but his let everyone kenerur his

